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FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC LAW.

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FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC LAW.

A CONCISE TREATISE

ON

Private International Jurisprudence,

BASED ON THE DECISIONS IN THE
ENGLISH COURTS.

BY

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PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

IN the second edition of this work nearly three hundred additional cases have been considered and cited, and in consequence much of the text has been rewritten. This is especially the case with the pages which treat of the important subjects of nationality, legitimacy, jurisdiction over and alienation of movables, and capacity to contract. In one or two instances (of which the most prominent is the discussion at the end of Chap. VI. on legitimacy for the purposes of succession to chattels real) the author has made use of a note beyond the usual length, in order to avoid breaking in upon the continuity of the text.

The relevant cases and practice under the Judicature Acts, so far as practicable, have been incorporated; and the original design of making the book of use to the practising English lawyer, has been steadily kept in view. It is hoped that the index, which has been revised and added to, will promote this object.

The author desires to take this opportunity of thanking those correspondents who have supplied valuable suggestions and information, and begs them to accept this acknowledgment.

J. ALDERSON FOOTE.

2, DR. JOHNSON'S BUILDINGS, TEMPLE,
September, 1890.

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

THE fact that twenty years have elapsed since the publication of Mr. Westlake's work on Private International Law, and that no other English writer has since treated exclusively of the subject, may perhaps justify this attempt to supplement the deficiencies which lapse of time has created in that treatise. It is true that a portion of Sir R. Phillimore's voluminous Commentaries on International Law is devoted to this branch of jurisprudence, and that the successive editors of Story's "Conflict of Laws" have incorporated into the text references to the more prominent of the modern English decisions; but neither of these works appears entirely adequate to the requirements of the practical English lawyer; and the author believes that a less ambitious summary of the English law on the subject may supply a sensible want.

The present work does not purport to be a treatise on Private International Law in the ordinary sense of the phrase. Private International Law is to be collected from the judicial decisions of many nations, and from the writings of many jurists. It would be a superfluous, if not a presumptuous task, to undertake the reproduction and analysis of the materials which Story and Westlake, as well as others, have already handled. So far as those writers have expounded the theory and science of this branch of jurisprudence, their works must remain the classics of the subject, with which no subsequent writer

is likely to compete successfully. The author has accordingly abstained from re-arranging those citations from the jurists which formed the foundation of the science, but which have since become trite under the hands of its professors. The English decisions, on the other hand, which have been built upon that foundation still remain a more or less chaotic mass. Since the publication of Westlake's treatise the importance of the subject to the English lawyer has been extraordinarily developed, and it is not too much to say that on almost every branch of it the law has undergone alteration. The index of cases prefixed to the present treatise, as compared with that of the earlier work, will give some idea of the need which exists for a reconsideration of the subject.

The object of the author, then, has been to attempt to reduce into order the mass of materials which has accumulated; and to construct the framework of private international law, not from the *dicta* of jurists, but from the judicial decisions in English Courts which have superseded them. Not only every branch, but almost every ramification of the subject, has now come, directly or indirectly, under the consideration of English tribunals; and it is obvious that in their declarations of opinion the English lawyer, at least, will find his most trustworthy guide. Where their voices are still uncertain, the less authoritative judgments of the text-writers have generally been cited to supplement them.

The summaries which have been subjoined to the different headings are not in any way intended, it is almost unnecessary to say, as an attempt at codification. No branch of jurisprudence is perhaps less adapted to such treatment. They are meant merely to guide the student, to assist reference, and to present the conclusions at which the author has arrived in as clear and definite a form as possible. Without some such assistance, it would often be difficult to ascertain the whole effect, or what presents itself to the author's judgment as such, of the cases collected and considered under each heading. To express

satisfactorily the amount of certainty which in each particular case is justifiable, while avoiding any assumption of dogmatism or formal codification, unsupported by authority, has throughout been the chief consideration. In order to present a general synopsis of the whole subject, the summaries have been reprinted at the end of the book in a continuous form.

J. ALDERSON FOOTE.

2, DR. JOHNSON'S BUILDINGS, TEMPLE,
October, 1878.

CONTENTS.

	PAGE
PREFACE	v
TABLE OF CASES	xiii
INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER	xxv

PART I.—PERSONS.

CH. I. NATIONALITY	1
CH. II. DOMICIL	22
CH. III. CAPACITY	44
CH. IV. LEGITIMACY AND MARRIAGE	60
CH. V. ARTIFICIAL AND CONVENTIONAL PERSONS, INCLUDING FOREIGN CORPORATIONS, STATES, SOVEREIGNS, AND AMBASSADORS	100

PART II.—PROPERTY.

CH. VI. IMMOVABLE PROPERTY	158-222
(i.) Jurisdiction as to Immovable Property	158
(ii.) Nature and Incidents of Immovable Property	179
(iii.) Transfer of Immovable Property <i>inter vivos</i>	193
(iv.) Succession to Immovable Property by Will	196
(v.) Alienation of Immovable Property on Intestacy	202
(vi.) Alienation of Immovable Property on Bankruptcy	208
(vii.) Alienation of Immovable Property on Marriage	212
Note on Succession to Chattels real	214
CH. VII. MOVABLE PERSONAL PROPERTY	223-321
(i.) Jurisdiction as to Movables	223
(ii.) Transfer of Movables <i>inter vivos</i>	236
(iii.) Succession to Movable Personal Property	252-300
(a) Disposition of Movable Personal Property by Will	252
(b) Succession to Movable Personal Property by Operation of Law	266
(c) Right and Title of the Personal Representa- tive	269
(d) Probate and Administration Duties	280

	PAGE
(e) Succession and Legacy Duty	284
(f) Distribution of Movable Personal Estate by Executors and Administrators	293
(iv.) Alienation of Movable Personal Property on Bankruptcy	301
(v.) Alienation of Movable Personal Property on Marriage	315

PART III.—ACTS.

CH. VIII. CONTRACTS	322-470
(i.) Jurisdiction as to Contracts	323
(ii.) Law by which the Contract is Governed	336
(a) Capacity to Contract	337
(b) Formalities of the Contract	352
(c) Legality of the Contract	364
(d) Essentials of the Contract	375
1. Construction of the Contract	378
2. Nature and Incidents of the Obligation	387
3. Performance	450
4. Discharge	458
CH. IX. TORTS	471-499
(i.) Jurisdiction as to Torts	471
(ii.) Measure of the Wrong done	476
(iii.) Measure of the Remedy	482
Note on Crimes	496

PART IV.—PROCEDURE.

CH. X. PROCEDURE AND EVIDENCE	500-542
(i.) Parties to the Action	501
(a) Name in which it must be brought	501
(b) Name against which it must be brought	505
(ii.) Time within which the Action must be brought	508
(iii.) Mode of Suing and Enforcing Process	513
(iv.) Evidence necessary and admissible	523
(v.) Proof of Facts peculiarly Foreign	524
CH. XI. FOREIGN JUDGMENTS	543-583
(i.) <i>In personam</i>	543
(ii.) <i>In rem</i>	572
(iii.) <i>In statum</i>	576
(iv.) <i>Lis alibi pendens</i>	579

CONTINUOUS SUMMARY	585-620
INDEX	621-643

TABLE OF CASES.

A.		PAGE
Abbott v. Abbott	162, 526	
Aberystwith Promenade Pier Co. v. Cooper	120	
Abd-ul-Messih v. Farra	22, 39	
Aboulloff v. Oppenheimer	552, 572	
Acebal v. Levy	354, 500	
Adams v. Clutterbuck	162, 193	
— v. Great Western Ry. Co.	120	
Agnew v. Usher	177	
Albion Insurance Co. v. Mills	246, 418	
Albo, <i>In re</i>	57	
Alexander, In the Goods of	188, 259	
— v. Vaughan	305	
Alexandria Water Co. v. Musgrave	234	
Alison v. Furnival	310, 504	
Alison's Trusts	74	
Allardice v. Onslow	30	
Allen v. Anderson	187, 191, 197	
— v. Cannon	305	
— v. Douglas	306	
— v. Kemble	430, 435, 515	
Allhusen v. Malgarejo	326	
Alves v. Hodgson	356, 523	
Amalia, The	474, 490	
Anderson v. Lanenville	40, 285	
Andros v. Andros	63, 218	
Anglo-African Steam Co., <i>In re</i>	228	
Angus v. Angus	164	
Annapolis, The	494	
Anstruther v. Adair	317, 378	
— v. Chalmers	262	
Appleton v. Lord Braybrooke	526	
Arayo v. Currell	395	
Archer v. Preston	163, 167	
Ardaseer Cursetjee v. Perozeboys	78	
Arglasse v. Muschamp	163, 168	
Armani v. Castrique	462	
Armstrong v. Stokes	449	
Arnold v. Arnold	284	
Arnott v. Redfern	553, 566	
Aspinwall v. Queen's Proctor	274	
Astor, In the Goods of	264	
Atchison v. Dixon	34	
Athol, The	133	
Atkinson v. Anderson	65	
Attorney-General v. Alexander	115	
— v. Beatson	284	
— v. Bouwens	269, 279, 281	
— v. Campbell	283, 291	
— v. Cockerell	284	
— v. Coote	232	
— v. Dimond	281	
— v. Forbes	284	
— v. Hope	281	
— v. Jackson	276	
— v. Mill	195	
— v. Napier	285, 286	
— v. Pottinger	31, 33	
— v. Pratt	282	
— v. Stewart	374	
— v. Sturge	170	
— v. Waldstatt	20, 28	
Attwood v. Sellar	423	
B.		
Bacon's Case	143	
Bacon v. Turner	522	
Badart's Trusts	287	
Baillie v. Baillie	172	
Bain v. Whitehaven, &c., Ry. Co.	500, 523	
Baird v. Prescott	582	
Balfour v. Scott	204, 208, 266	
Banco de Portugal v. Waddell	307, 313	
Bank of Australasia v. Harding	507, 544, 544, 551, 569	
— v. Nias	507, 558, 569	
Barber v. Lamb	560, 571	
Barbuit's Case	153	
Barclay v. Russell	130	
Bariatinski, <i>In re</i>	55	

	PAGE		PAGE
Baring v. Claggett . . .	560, 575	Brandon, <i>Ex parte</i> . . .	305, 328
Barker v. Goodair . . .	514	Branley v. South-Eastern Rail- way Co.	365, 370, 456
Barlow, <i>In re</i>	57	Bree v. Marescaux . . .	476
Barnes v. Vincent . . .	259	Bremer v. Freeman . . .	31,
Barrow v. Myers . . .	327	36, 40, 254, 529	
Bateman v. Service . . .	109	Brettillot v. Sandos . . .	516
Bathyanay v. Walford . .	183	Brickwood v. Miller . . .	308, 514
Bayley v. Mitchell . . .	580	Briggs v. Briggs	89
Bazett v. Meyer	369	Bristow v. Sequeville . .	354
Beard v. Webb	505	British Imp. Corporation, <i>In re</i>	328
Beattie v. Johnston . . .	36	British Linen Co. v. Drummond	353,
Beavan v. Hastings . . .	278	380, 500	
Beckford v. Kemble . . .	172	British Marine Co. v. M'Innes .	330
Becquet v. Macarthy . . .	547	Brodie v. Barry	196, 204, 268
Bell, <i>In re</i>	30	— v. Brodie	90
— v. Kennedy	22, 24, 31	Brook v. Brook	70, 345
Bempde v. Johnstone . . .	23	Brown v. Gracey	403, 528
Benham v. Mornington . .	352	— v. London and North- Western Ry. Co.	120
Bentley v. Northouse . .	443	Brown v. Collins	54
Bernard v. White	383, 392	— v. Smith	33
Bernardi v. Motteux . . .	575	— v. Thornton	525
Biddulph v. Camoys . . .	525	Browne, <i>In re</i>	54
Biggs v. Lawrence	368	Bruce, <i>In re</i>	9
Binet v. Picot	325	— v. Bruce	30, 225, 266
Bird v. Appleton	554	Brunel v. Brunel	29
Biré v. Thompson	139	Buccleuch v. Hoare	187, 203
Birt v. Boutinez	87	Buchanan v. Rucker . . .	556, 559, 561
Birtwhistle v. Vardill . . .	60,	Buenos Ayres Ry. Co. v. North- ern Ry. of Buenos Ayres	169, 333
Black, <i>In re</i>	80, 201, 202, 215	Bulkeley v. Schultz . . .	108
Blad v. Bamfield	477, 575	Bullock v. Caird	175, 507
Blair, <i>Ex parte</i>	303	Bunbury v. Bunbury . . .	170
Blake v. Blake	161	Buonaparte, The	398
Blakes, <i>Ex parte</i>	210, 303	Burn v. Farrar	76
Blanchet v. Powell's Llantwit Collieries Co.	410	Buron v. Denman	140, 475
Bliethman, <i>In re</i>	309	Burrows v. Jemino	431, 451, 459, 567
Bloxham v. Favre	14, 256	Burton, <i>Ex parte</i>	462
Bode's Case	530	Burton v. Burton	91
Boissiere v. Brockner . . .	548	Burton v. Fisher	27, 30
Bolton v. Gladstone . . .	560, 575	Buseck, <i>In the Goods of</i> . .	14
Bond v. Bond	93	Busfield, <i>In re</i>	230, 328, 520, 522
— v. Graham	277	Bushby v. Munday	171
Bonelli, <i>In the Goods of</i>	229, 328, 531		
Borrodale, <i>Ex parte</i> . . .	173		
Boucher v. Lawson	369, 566		
Bourgeoise, <i>In re</i>	17, 19, 54		
Bowes, <i>In re</i>	313, 510, 512		
Bowles v. Orr	576		
Bovey v. Smith	196, 359		
Boyes v. Bedale	63, 80, 293		
Boyle v. Sacker	522		
Boyse, <i>In re</i>	113, 307, 571, 581		
Bradford v. Young	27		
Bradlaugh v. De Rin . . .	358,		
364, 436, 501			
Bradley v. Hodges	460, 463		

C.

Calcutta Jute Mills Co.'s Case .	117
Call v. Oppenheim	230, 327
Calvin's Case	2, 5, 9
Calwell v. Calwell	97
Cammell v. Sewell	237,
241, 247, 399, 412, 560, 574	
Campbell, <i>In re</i>	305
Campbell v. French	505
— v. Graham	262
— v. Lucy	199

XV

6

	PAGE		PAGE
Dawson v. Jay	54	Dost Ali, <i>In re</i>	532
De Begnis v. Armistead . . .	367	Doucet v. Geoghegan . . .	30, 34
De Bode's Case	530	Douglas v. Cooper	261, 578
De Bonneval v. De Bonneval .	24,	— v. Douglas	24, 28, 34
27, 30, 251		— v. Forrest	563
Deck v. Deck	93, 97	Doulson v. Matthews . . .	174, 177, 472
De Cosse Brissac v. Rathbone .	548,	Dowdale's Case	280
563, 569		Drevon v. Drevon	34
De Fogapieras v. Duport . . .	182, 217	Drummond v. Drummond . .	186,
De Geer v. Stone	3, 19, 143	191, 196, 204	
De Haber v. Queen of Portugal .	128	Drummond, <i>In re</i>	328
De la Chaumette v. Bank of		Dubout v. Macpherson . . .	522
England	249, 442, 502	Duchess of Kingston, Case of	258,
De la Saussaye, In the Goods of	264,	553, 572	
271		Duchess of Orleans, Case of .	265
De la Tone v. Bernales	130	Dues v. Smith	505
De la Vega v. Vianna	295,	Duflor v. Birmingham . . .	548
353, 500, 503		Duggan v. Duggan	93
De la Viesca v. Lubbock	270,	Duke of Brunswick v. King of	
293, 583		Hanover	128, 130, 140
De Lovio v. Boit	475, 482	Duke of Montelano v. Christin	145
Delta, The	580	Dumfries, The	492
Delvalle v. Plumer	148, 151	Duncan v. Cannan	317
Dent v. Smith	384	— v. Lawson	182, 214
De Pereda v. Maricha	14	Dundas v. Dundas	196
Deshais, In the Goods of . . .	273	Duranty v. Hart	397
Dessilla v. Fels	524, 527	Durham v. Spence	326
Dewar v. Maitland	198	Duroure v. Jones	2
— v. Span	452	Dutch West India Co. v. Van	
Dever, <i>Ex parte</i>	382	Moses	101
D'Etchegeyey v. D.	34, 95	Dutton v. Morrison	514
De Wutz v. Hendricks	371		
De Zichy Ferraris v. Hertford .	251,		
258			
D'Huart v. Harkness	251		
Dillon v. Alvares	580	Eager, <i>In re</i>	228, 326, 475
Di Sora v. Phillips	524, 530	Eames v. Hacon	270, 275, 292, 503
Dobree, <i>Ex parte</i>	307	Earl, In the Goods of	265
— v. Napier	477	Edinburgh and Leith Ry. Co. v.	
Doe v. Acklam	9	Dawson	120
— v. Arkwright	9	Edwards v. Ronald	461
— v. Jones	545	Ekens v. East India Co. . .	451, 486
— v. Huddart	143	Elias, <i>In re</i>	57
— v. Mulcaster	9	Eliza Cornish, The	242, 412
— v. Oliver	545, 478	Elliot v. Minto	171, 186, 204
— v. Birtwhistle v. Vardill . .	60,	Ellis v. M'Henry	209, 459, 463
80, 201, 202, 218		Elphinstone v. Bedreeshund .	140
Dogliani v. Crispin	51, 225, 253, 577	Emperor of Austria v. Day .	123,
Dolphin v. Robins	32, 86, 251	124, 138	
Don's Estate, <i>In re</i>	60, 203	Emperor of Brazil v. Robinson	123,
Don v. Lippman	312,	140, 145	
353, 419, 451		English v. Caballero	149
Donaldson v. McClure	28	Eno v. Tatham	206
— v. Thompson	572	Enohin v. Wylie	199,
Dormoy, <i>In re</i>	532	225, 251, 262, 293, 503	
Doss v. Secretary of State for		Erichsen v. Last	234
India	140, 159	Erminia Foscolo, The	580

	PAGE
Eschger v. Morrison . . .	332, 548
Esposito v. Bowden . . .	372
Este v. Smyth . . .	318
Evans v. Higge . . .	148
Ewin, <i>In re</i> . . .	225, 285
Ewing v. Orr-Ewing . . .	160, 253, 266
Exchange, The . . .	133

F.

Factage Parisien, <i>In re</i> . . .	109
Fenton v. Livingstone . . .	67, 74, 79
Ferguson's Trusts . . .	54
Ferguson v. Douglas . . .	253
— v. Fyffe . . .	451, 500, 513
— v. Mahon . . .	559, 563, 566
— v. Spencer . . .	461
Fernandes' Case . . .	281
Field v. Bennett . . .	328, 475
Firbank, <i>In re</i> . . .	212, 313
Firebrace v. Firebrace . . .	89, 93, 97
Fisher v. Begreux . . .	149, 151
— v. Ogle . . .	575
Fitch v. Weber . . .	19
Flad Oyen, The . . .	572
Flood v. Patterson . . .	277
Folliott v. Ogden . . .	311, 502
Forbes v. Cochrane . . .	371
— v. Forbes . . .	34
Forgo's Case . . .	38
Foster v. Vassal . . .	164
Foubert v. Turst . . .	317
Fowler v. Barstow . . .	522
Franconia, The . . .	497
Frankland v. M'Gusty . . .	560
Fraser v. Sinclair . . .	565
Frayes v. Worms . . .	558, 580
Freeman v. East India Co. . .	242, 417
Freke v. Carbery . . .	181, 214, 224, 292
Fryer v. Bernard . . .	168
Fysenoord, The . . .	494

G.

Gaetano and Maria, The . . .	405
Galbraith v. Neville . . .	566
Gally, <i>In the Goods of</i> . . .	256
Garcias v. Ricardo . . .	512
Gardiner v. Houghton . . .	459
Garnier, <i>In re</i> . . .	57
Garton v. Great Western Ry. Co. . .	106
Gattorno v. Adams . . .	398
Geils v. Geils . . .	87
General Land Credit Co. . .	109
General Screw Colliery Co. v. Schurmans . . .	491, 493

	PAGE
General Steam Navigation Co. v. Guillon . . .	101, 175, 484, 506
Gentili, <i>In re</i> . . .	182, 217
Gibbs v. Fremont . . .	431, 435
— v. Société des Métaux . . .	460
Gilbertson v. Ferguson . . .	233
Gill v. Barrow . . .	462
Gillam, <i>Ex parte</i> . . .	56
Gillis v. Gillis . . .	93
Girolamo, The . . .	487
Gladstone v. Musurus Bey . . .	135, 229
— v. Ottoman Bank . . .	135
Godard v. Gray . . .	544, 552, 562, 570
Goldsmid, <i>Ex parte</i> . . .	312, 514
— v. Cazenove . . .	514
Gomez v. Eames . . .	35
Goodman's Trusts . . .	62,
65, 80, 199, 215, 263, 267, 293	
Goodwin v. Archer . . .	145
Gordon, <i>In the Goods of</i> . . .	277
Gorgier v. Miéville . . .	432
Graham v. Maxwell . . .	581
— v. Massey . . .	162
Grant v. Easton . . .	546, 565
Gratitudine, The . . .	242, 405
Great Austral. Co. v. Martin . . .	328, 522
Greer v. Poole . . .	382, 420
Grell v. Davis . . .	356
— v. Levy . . .	365, 455
Greysbrook v. Fox . . .	278
Griffin v. Weatherley . . .	364
Grimwood v. Bartels . . .	57
Grove, <i>In re</i> . . .	62, 199, 264, 267
Guépratte v. Young . . .	318, 358
Guinness v. Carroll . . .	563
Gutierrez, <i>Ex parte</i> . . .	305
Gynn v. Gilbard . . .	54

H.

Haggin v. Comptoir de Paris . . .	114
— v. Stone . . .	104
Haldane v. Eckford . . .	20, 24, 28
Hall v. Odber . . .	544, 571
Halley, The . . .	175, 474, 477
Halliburton, <i>In the Goods of</i> . . .	259
Hamburg, The . . .	397, 405
Hamilton v. Dallas . . .	31, 36, 40
Haney's Trusts, <i>In re</i> . . .	229
Hanson v. Walker . . .	294
Harford v. Morris . . .	68, 79
Harmer v. Bell . . .	245, 579
Harris, <i>In the Goods of</i> . . .	264
— v. Fleming . . .	326
— v. Quine . . .	508, 511
— v. Scaramanga . . .	419, 456

	PAGE		PAGE
Harrison v. Gurney	172	Hullett v. King of Spain	124, 128
——— v. Harrison 164, 186, 208, 184		Hunfrey v. Dale	387
Hassall v. Lawrence	327	Hunter v. Potts	226, 266, 303, 514
Hart v. Gumpach	479	Hutcheson, In the Goods of	277
——— v. Herwig	229, 248	Hutchins v. Hutchins	527
Harvey v. Farnie	86, 88, 95	Hutchinson v. Tatham	387
Havelock v. Rockwood	572	Huthwaite v. Phaire	280
Hawarden v. Dunlop	277	Hutton v. Bullock	450
Hawthorn, <i>In re</i>	160	——— v. Warren	386
Heath v. Sampson	34	Hyde v. Hyde	78
Heathfield v. Chilton	148	Hyman v. Helm	581
Hecquard, <i>In re</i>	303		
Hellmann's Will, <i>In re</i> 51, 54, 257, 263			
Henderson, In the Goods of	271		
——— <i>In re</i>	546, 558		
——— v. Henderson	547, 588		
Hendrick v. Wood	166		
Hendricks v. Australasian Insurance Co.	419		
Hennings v. Rothschild	371		
Henriques v. Dutch West India Co.	101		
Hercules, The	475		
Heriz v. Riera	366, 455		
Herman Loog, <i>In re</i>	110		
Hermanos, <i>In re</i>	304, 308		
Hervey v. Fitzpatrick	275		
Hewitson v. Fabre	328, 522		
Higgins v. Scott	510		
Hill, In the Goods of	265, 273		
Hindhaugh v. Blakey	445		
Hirschfield v. Smith	451		
Hissing v. Sutherland	57		
Hobbs v. Henning	574, 578		
Hobby's Case	83		
Hodgson v. De Beauchesne 25, 30, 40			
Hodsoll v. Baxter	546, 565		
Hog v. Lashley	264		
Holman v. Johnson	368		
Holmes v. Holmes	316		
——— <i>In re</i>	161, 162		
——— v. Regina	168		
Holthausen, <i>Ex parte</i>	167, 173		
Hood v. Barrington	277		
Hooper v. Gunn	237, 242		
Hope v. Carnegie	170		
——— v. Hope	54		
Hopkins v. De Robeck	147, 151		
Horne v. Rouquette	432		
Hoskins v. Matthews	36, 37		
Houlditch v. Donegal	565, 572		
Houston, <i>In re</i>	56		
——— v. Sligo	580		
Howden, Lord, In the Goods of	264		
Huber v. Steiner	500, 509		
Hudson v. Clementson	398, 457		
Hughes v. Cornelius	557, 578		
		I.	
		Ilderton v. Ilderton	83, 324
		Imperial Continental Gas Association v. Nicholson	115
		Imray v. Ellesfen	516
		Indian Chief, The	40
		Ingate v. Austrian Lloyd's	101, 326
		Ingham v. Sachs	96
		Inglis v. Grant	304
		——— v. Usherwood	245
		Innis v. Dunlop	502
		——— v. Mitchell	576
		International Pulp Co., <i>In re</i>	109
		Isaacson v. Durant	10
		J.	
		Jackson v. Petrie	163, 167
		——— v. Spittall	304, 326
		Jacob v. Credit Lyonnais	239, 382
		James v. Catherwood	356
		Jauncey v. Seeley	275
		Jeffery v. M'Taggart	248, 318
		Jenney v. Macintosh	330
		Jephson v. Riera	9
		Jerningham v. Herbert 182, 188, 203	
		Johnson v. Telford	197
		Johnstone v. Baker	187, 203
		——— v. Beattie	52, 65, 253
		Jones v. Garcia del Rio	371
		——— v. Geddes	171
		——— v. Sc. Acc. Co.	327
		Jonge Klassina, The	41, 118
		Jopp v. Wood	25, 27, 29
		K.	
		Kannreither v. Geivelbrecht	294
		Karnak, The	405, 408
		Kaye v. Sutherland	177
		Kearney v. King	383
		Kelsall v. Marshall	508, 544, 571
		Kennedy v. Cassilis	171, 566, 578

	PAGE		PAGE
Keynsham Blue Lias Lime Co.		Lockwood v. Coysgarne . . .	148
v. Baker	119	Logan v. Coord	538
Kildare v. Eustace	163, 167	— v. Fairlie	55, 276, 284
Kilkenny Ry. Co. v. Feilden	120	Lolley's Case	72, 85, 341
Kindersley v. Chase	575	Lopez v. Burslem	509, 512
King v. Foxwell	24	Lord v. Colvin	31, 538
King of Greece v. Wright	140, 145	Lothian v. Henderson	555, 576
King of Spain v. Hullett	123, 140	Lovelace, <i>In re</i>	285
— v. Machado	385	Lyall v. Lyall	290
King of Two Sicilies v. Wilcox	122, 124	Lynch v. M'Kenny	461
Kingston, Duch. of, Case 258, 553, 572		— v. Provisional Government of Paraguay	258
Kirchner v. Venus	387	M.	
Klingewan, <i>In re</i>	532		
Klobe, <i>In re</i>	294		
Knight, <i>Ex parte</i> , Re Firbank 212, 313			
Kynnaid v. Lealie	83, 84, 349		
L.			
Lacon v. Higgins	403, 530		
Lacroix, <i>In the Goods of</i>	257	M'CCarthy v. Decaix	72, 86, 344
Lagan, The	475	Macartney v. Garbutt	143, 144
Laneville v. Anderson	258, 272	McCormick v. Garnett	505
Langworthy, <i>Ex parte</i>	305	McDaniell v. Hughes	307
Lansdown v. Lansdown	262, 316	Macfarlane v. Norris	515
Larivière v. Morgan	134	McHenry v. Lewis	581
Larpent v. Sindry	265, 271	Mackareth v. Glasgow and South- Western Ry. Co.	105
Last v. London Insurance Co.	235	Maclaren v. Stainton	103, 113
Lauderdale Peerage Case	24, 31, 36	Macmahon v. Rawlings	270
Lebel v. Tucker	246, 358, 437, 502	Macnichol v. Macnichol	271
Le Briton v. Le Quesue	269	Madrid, &c., Ry. Co., <i>In re</i>	109
Le Chevalier v. Lynch	306	Madrazo v. Willes	141, 371
Lee v. Abdy	250, 367	Magreight, <i>In re</i>	33
Lee v. Moore	269	Magdalen Steam Co. v. Martin	143,
Legrelle v. Davis	356		152
Lenders v. Anderson	327, 475, 522	Maghee v. M'Allister	87
Leon, The	493	Malachi Carolina's Case	148, 149
Leroux v. Brown	352, 354, 500, 523	Malcolm v. Martin	262
Le Sueur v. Le Sueur	31, 94, 97	Male v. Roberts	47, 337
Lever v. Fletcher	369	Mali Ivo, The	482, 580
Levinge, <i>In re</i>	55	Maltass v. Maltass	23, 34
Levy's Trusts	211	Manning v. Manning	27, 91
Levy v. Solomon	66	Marie de Brabant, The	490
Lewis, <i>Ex parte</i>	57	Marrett, <i>In re</i>	26
— v. Baldwin	103	Martin v. Martin	167, 173
— v. Owen	460, 463	— v. Nichols	566
Lhoneux v. Hongkong B. Co.	107	Maspons y Hermano v. Mildred	408
Lightfoot v. Tennant	368	Mason v. Comptoir, &c., de Paris 103,	
Lindo v. Belisario	76, 528		104, 107, 332
Liverpool Marine Co. v. Hunter, 240,	247, 559	Massev v. Heynes	330
Lloyd Generale Italiano, <i>In re</i> 110, 114		Matthaei v. Galitsin	162, 166
Lloyd v. Inland Revenue	232	Matheson Bros., <i>In re</i>	109
— v. Guibert	393,	Maughan, <i>In re</i>	520
.	418, 447, 454, 528	Maule v. Murray	580
Lockwood v. Fenton	55	Maunder v. Lloyd	160
		Mavro v. Ocean Marine Insurance Co.	419, 456
		Maxwell v. Hyalop	207
		— v. Maxwell	188, 197, 205
		Mayor of London v. B.	579

	PAGE		PAGE
Melan v. Fitzjames	380, 516, 518	Newby v. Colt's Patent Firearms Co.	102
Melbourn, <i>Ex parte</i>	295, 312, 464, 513	Newby v. Van Oppen	104
Meliset's Case	38	Newman v. Cazalet	420
Mellish v. Simeon	431	Newton v. Manning	57
— v. Valins	206	Niboyet v. Niboyet	34, 91, 95
Messina v. Petrococcchino	572	Nina, The	390
Mette v. Mette	72	Norden v. James	304
Mous v. Thellusson	562	Norris, <i>In re</i>	303
Mewburn, <i>In re</i>	328	Norris v. Chambers	161, 167
Meyer v. Dresser	515	North Star, The	408, 448
— v. Ralli	558	Norton v. Florence Co.	162
— <i>In re</i>	304	Nouvion v. Freeman	546, 558
Middleton v. Janverin	73, 344, 530	Novelli v. Rossi	553, 555
Millford, The	494	Novello v. Toogood	147, 148, 150
Millar v. Heinrich	530	Nugent v. Vetzera	54
Miller v. James	259	Nutter v. Messageries Marit.	107
Milne v. Graham	443		
Missouri Steam Co.	405	O.	
Mitchell, <i>In re</i>	33	Obicini v. Bligh	560
Montagu v. Festing	55	O'Callaghan v. Thomond	248,
Moodalay v. Morton	130		250, 310, 502
Moor v. Anglo-Italian Bank	168	Ochsenbein v. Papelier	552, 572
Moore v. Darell	258	Oddy v. Bovil	572
Moorhouse v. Lord	20, 28	Odwin v. Forbes	459
Morgan v. Knight	310	Oldenbury, <i>In re</i>	532
Moritz v. Stephen	228, 327	Oldham Building, &c., Co. v.	
Moses v. Macfarlane	566	Heald	119
Mostyn v. Fabrigas	174,	O'Loughlen, <i>Ex parte</i>	304
	325, 330, 471, 525	Ommaney v. Bingham	262, 264
Moxham, The M.	174,	O'Neil v. Clason	107
	177, 472, 477, 482	Oriental In. Steam Co., <i>In re</i>	307,
Munden v. Duke of Brunswick	139		514
Munro v. Douglas	33	Orleans, Duchess of, Case	265
— v. Munro	23, 40, 60	Orrell v. Orrell	198
— v. Pilkington	581	Osmanli, The	408, 448
— v. Saunders	61	Ostell v. Lepage	579
Myers v. Sarl	386		
		P.	
N.		Padley v. Camphausen	328, 522
Nabob of Arcot v. East India Co.	123, 130	Paget v. Ede	160
Nabob of the Carnatic v. East India Co.	140	Pardoe v. Bingham	312, 358, 509, 511
Nabob of India v. East India Co.	130	Parker v. Great Western Ry. Co.	366
Nathan & Co., <i>In re</i>	229	— v. Kett	278
— v. Seitz	327	Parlement Belge, The	132
National Bank of St. Charles v. De Bernales	102	Partington v. Attorney-General	270,
Naylor's Estate	328		279, 283
Neal v. Cottingham	303	Pascal, <i>Ex parte</i>	304
Nelson, The	448	Patience v. Main	27
Nelson v. Bridport	183, 528	Patria, The	389, 412
New v. Bonaker	170	Pattison v. Mills	246, 366, 447
New York Life Co. v. Styles	235	Paul v. Roy	560
Newbattle, The	129	Pearman v. Twiss	183, 216
		Pearse v. Pearse	281

	PAGE		PAGE
Pechell v. Hilderley	256	R. v. Anderson	475, 496
Pellecat v. Angell	368	R. v. Allen	475
Peninsular and Oriental Co. v.		R. v. Carr	475, 496
Shand	390, 399, 419, 428, 454	R. v. Dent	532
Penn v. Baltimore	160, 163	R. v. Dudley	82, 497
Percy & Co., <i>In re</i>	121	R. v. Inhab. of Brampton	76
Petreis v. Tondeir	77	R. v. Jemot	475
Peruvian G. Co. v. Bockwoldt	581	R. v. Keyn	82, 481, 491
Peter v. Stirling	281	R. v. Lesley	478
Phillips v. Allan	460	R. v. Pictou	532
v. Eyre	169, 459, 478	R. v. Povey	531
v. Hunter	226,	Reid, In the Goods of	255
303, 546, 564, 567		Reimers v. Druce	553, 568
Philpotts v. Reed	462	Reiner v. Marquis of Salisbury	159, 163
Phipps v. Anglesea	383	Renaud v. Tourangeau	195
Pictou's Case	530	Republic of Costa Rica v. Ertan-	121, 127, 140
Pierson v. Garnett	262	Republic of Liberia v. Imperial	127
Pike v. Hoare	167, 198	Bank	123
Pipon v. Pipon	225, 266	Republic of Peru v. Dreyfus	126,
Pitt v. Dacre	182, 184, 509, 511	v. Weguelin	140
v. Pitt	86	Reynolds v. Coleman	327
Platt v. Attorney-General	34, 35	Reuss v. Bos	109
Plummer v. Woodburne	558, 580	Reynolds, <i>Ex parte</i> , <i>In re</i> Nor-	303
Pollard, <i>Ex parte</i>	167, 173	Reynolds v. Fenton	559, 562
v. Bell	554, 560	Ricardo v. Garcias	547, 567, 580
Pommery v. Apthorpe	233	Rioboo, In the Goods of	271
Pope v. Nickerson	395	Rippon, <i>In re</i>	255
Portarlington v. Soulbly	168	Roach v. Garvan	578
Portland, The	40	Roberdeau v. Rons	164, 167
Pottinger v. Wightman	24	Robertson, <i>Ex parte</i>	312
Potter v. Brown	225,	v. Jackson	395, 457
251, 266, 309, 431, 451		v. Struth	560
Potterfen v. Gibson	107	Robinson v. Blund	194, 238, 359
Power v. Whitmore	419	Rogers, <i>Ex parte</i>	168, 209, 302, 581
President of United States v.		v. Inland Revenue	232
Drummond	285	Rogerson, In the Goods of	265
Preston v. Lamont	333, 522	Roly v. Snaefell Co.	327
v. Melville	253, 279, 513	Rolla, The	141
Price v. Dewhurst	182,	Rothschild v. Currie	433, 451
216, 251, 258, 266, 560		Rouquette v. Overman	430, 434, 451
Prins Frederik, The	133, 136	Rousillon v. Rousillon	331,
		367, 374, 548, 550, 563	
		Royal Bank of Scotland v. Cath-	213, 307, 315, 460
		bert	180
		Rucker, <i>In re</i>	180
		Ruckmaboye v. Mottichund	185, 509
		Ruding v. Smith	47, 75, 337
		Rule, In the Goods of	272
		Russel v. Smyth	544, 546
		Russell v. Cambefort	103,
		107, 114, 121, 332	
		Ryan v. Ryan	88
		Ryde, In the Goods of	277

Q.

Quarrier v. Colston	367, 370
Queensland Merc. Co., <i>In re</i>	581
Quelin v. Moisson	459

R.

Raffeneil, In the Goods of	25
Ralli v. Denistoun	452
Ratcliff v. Ratcliff	93
Raymond v. Von Watteville	281
Read, In the Goods of	265, 272

S.		PAGE
Saloucci v. Woodmass	575	
Santos v. Illidge	372	
Saunders v. Drake	262	
Saussaye, <i>In re</i>	264	
Sawer v. Shute	317, 505	
Sawers, <i>In re</i>	303	
Saxonia, The	491, 493	
Scarth v. Bishop of London	270, 280	
Scheibler, <i>In re</i>	173	
Schibaby v. Westenholz	544	
Scinde Ry. Co., <i>Ex parte</i>	549, 559, 561	
Scott, <i>In re</i>	305	
Scott, v. Attorney-General	84, 90	
— v. Beavan	486	
— v. Nesbitt	150, 187	
— v. Pilkington	431, 443, 553, 558	
— v. Royal Wax Candle Co.	102	
— v. Seymour	104, 521	
— v. Seymour	175	
Scrimshire v. Scrimshire	479, 481, 516, 580	
Seacomb v. Bowlney	73, 344	
Secretary of State for India v. Kamachee Boye Sahaba	148	
Segredo, The	130, 140	
Selkrig v. Davis	242, 405, 413	
Service v. Castaneda	213, 250, 307	
Shand v. Du Boisson	152	
Sharp v. Taylor	572	
Sharpe v. Crispin	369	
Shaw v. Attorney-General	34	
— v. Gould	86, 98, 577	
— v. Sturton	60, 577	
Shearman v. Findlay	280	
Shedden v. Patrick	327, 476	
Shiels v. Great Northern Ry. Co.	61	
— v. Borch	106, 120	
Sidaway v. Hay	326	
Sill v. Worswick	461	
Simeon v. Bazett	225, 251, 303, 514	
Simonds v. White	369	
Simpson v. Fogo	399	
— v. Hazard	241, 247, 556, 574	
— v. Mirabita	527	
Sinclair v. Frazer	461	
Sinonin v. Maillac	546	
Sirdar Bhagwan Singh v. Secretary of State for India	47, 72, 79, 337	
Skinner v. East India Co.	140	
Smallpage's Case	174, 325, 471	
Skottowe v. Young	358, 436	
Smart, <i>In re</i>	66, 263, 267, 292	
Smith, <i>Ex parte</i>	265	
Smith's Trusts, <i>In re</i>	304	
Smith, <i>In the Goods of</i>	266, 271	
— v. Brown	180, 371	
— v. Buchanan	248, 307, 311, 460, 463	
— v. Moffat	313	
— v. Nichols	544, 566, 571, 580	
— v. Weguelin	228	
Smyth v. Anderson	449	
Société G. de Paris v. Dreyfus	230	
Solomons v. Ross	309	
Somerville v. Somerville	23	
— v. Somerville	25, 34, 40, 118	
Sottomaio, <i>In re</i>	56	
Sottomayor v. De Barros	47, 74, 79, 338	
South Carolina Bank v. Case	102	
Southcote, <i>Ex parte</i>	56	
Spears v. Hartley	510	
Spiller v. Bristol	522	
Spratt v. Harris	270	
Sprowle v. Legg	383	
Stanley v. Bernes	258	
State Fire Insurance Co., <i>In re</i>	486	
Steele v. Braddell	73, 347	
Stein's Case	514	
Stern, <i>In re</i>	29, 30	
Stevens v. Anderson	135	
— v. Masson	28	
Stewart, <i>In the Goods of</i>	265	
— v. Garnett	180, 262	
Stirling Maxwell v. Cartwright	253	
Stonelake v. Babb	362	
Strathmore Peerage Case	61	
Strathmore v. Vane	313, 510, 512	
Strousberg v. Costa Rica	229	
Submarine Telegraph Co. v. Dickson	481	
Sulley v. Attorney-General	115, 233	
Susa, The	40	
Suse v. Smith	382	
— v. Pomp	486	
Sussex Peerage Case	83, 350, 525, 532	
Sussman's Case	38	
Sutton v. Tatham	387	
Svendsen v. Wallace	421	
Swansea Shipping Co. v. Duncan, Fox & Co.	522	
Sweeting v. Pearse	387	
Swift, The	131	
Sykes v. Scholfield	330	
Sylph, The	482	
Sylva v. Da Costa	57	
T.		
Tait, <i>Ex parte</i>	168	
Talbot, <i>In re</i>	56	

	PAGE
Talleyrand v. Boulanger . . .	380, 518
Tarleton v. Tarleton . . .	566, 572
Tatnall v. Hankey . . .	259
Taylor v. Barclay . . .	138, 371
— v. Best . . .	133, 143, 152
— v. Crowland Gas and Coke Co. . .	113
Thanemore v. Thompson . . .	330
Tharsis Co. v. Soc. de Métaux 41, 121	
Thomas v. The Queen . . .	141
Thompson v. Advocate-General . . .	180,
— v. Bell . . .	224, 281
— v. Birch . . .	249
— v. Powles . . .	290
— v. Sylvester . . .	139, 371, 451
Thorn v. Watkin . . .	332
Thornton v. Curling . . .	226, 266
Thurburn v. Steward . . .	266
Thuret v. Jenkins . . .	295,
— v. Jenkins . . .	312, 315, 378
Tischler v. Aphorpe . . .	240, 247
Tollemache v. Tollemache . . .	233
Toller v. Cartaret . . .	86
Tollet v. Deponthieu . . .	309
Tootal's Trusts . . .	160
Tourton v. Flower . . .	23, 270
Tovey v. Lindsay . . .	269
Tozier v. Hawkins . . .	32
Trafford v. Blanc . . .	32
Trant, <i>In re</i> . . .	476
Trimbey v. Vignier . . .	8
Triquet v. Bath . . .	160
Trotter v. Trotter . . .	246
Trowbridge v. Taylor . . .	316, 436, 502, 513
Trufort, <i>In re</i> . . .	149
Tulloch v. Hartley . . .	199, 262
Tumacacori Co., <i>In re</i> . . .	279
Turner, <i>In re</i> . . .	8, 254, 266
— v. Thompson . . .	167
Tyler v. Bell . . .	109
	239
	31, 88
	270, 277

U.

Udney v. E. I. Co. . . .	232
Udny v. Udny . . .	20, 22, 29, 39, 52
Uhla, The . . .	482
Union Bank of Calcutta, <i>In re</i> . . .	107
— London v. Lenan- ton . . .	14
United States v. Priolean . . .	123
— v. M'Rae . . .	123
— v. Wagner . . .	123, 140
Urquhart v. Butterfield . . .	36

V.

	PAGE
Vallance, <i>In re</i> . . .	270
Vallée v. Dumerque . . .	121, 551, 561
Vanderdonckt v. Thellusson . . .	531
Van der Kan v. Ashworth . . .	230
Van Grutten v. Digby . . .	319
Vanquelin v. Bonard . . .	271, 547
Vaucher v. Treasury, <i>In re</i> Grove . . .	62,
— v. Treasury, <i>In re</i> Grove . . .	199, 264
Vaughan v. Weldon . . .	326
Vauthien v. Vauthien . . .	269
Vavasseur v. Krupp . . .	133, 137
Vera Cruz, The . . .	475
Viesca v. D'Arenburn . . .	265, 271
Vigny, <i>In the Goods of</i> . . .	273
Viveash v. Becker . . .	151
Voinet v. Barrett . . .	548, 562
Volant, The . . .	245, 275
Volans v. Carr . . .	57
Von Busseck, <i>In re</i> . . .	256
Vooght v. Wiuch . . .	545

W.

Wadsworth v. Queen of Portugal . . .	137
Waite v. Bingley . . .	211
Walker v. Witter . . .	566
Wall, Countess of, Case . . .	2
Wallace v. Attorney-General . . .	180,
— v. Brightwell . . .	224, 267, 285
Wallop's Trusts, <i>In re</i> . . .	285, 286
Walpole v. Ewer . . .	420
Wancke v. Wingien . . .	327
Ward v. Dey . . .	532
Waring v. Knight . . .	308
Warrender v. Warrender . . .	72,
— v. Warrender . . .	86, 194, 317, 344
Warter v. Warter . . .	90
Waterhouse v. Stansfield . . .	173, 194, 359
Watkins v. Scottish Imp. Ins. Company . . .	107, 327
Watson v. Dreyfus . . .	327
Watts v. Shrimpton . . .	320
Waymell v. Read . . .	368
Weaver, <i>In the Goods of</i> . . .	266, 273
Wedderburn v. Wedderburn . . .	171, 580
Wedmore v. Alvarez . . .	148
Weile v. Colquham . . .	234
Wendt, <i>In re</i> . . .	522
Westman v. Aktiebolaget Snick- arefabrik . . .	102, 105, 328
Whicker v. Hume . . .	35, 576
Whitaker v. Forbes . . .	168, 332
Whyte v. Rose . . .	270, 279
Wigglesworth v. Dallison . . .	386

	PAGE		PAGE
Wild Ranger, The	490	Wynne v. Callander	371, 431
Williams v. Chartered Bank of Australia	245	—— v. Jackson	356
Williams v. Colonial Bank	237, 245		
—— v. Dormer	31	X.	
—— v. Jones	353, 544	Ximenes v. Jacques	362
—— v. Nunn	205		
Willoughby, <i>In re</i>	3, 54	Y.	
Wilson v. Dunsany	294		
—— v. Wilson	27, 92, 96	Yates v. Thompson	262
—— <i>Ex parte</i>	307, 313	Yelverton v. Yelverton	89, 91, 97
Wilson's Case	303	Yorkshire Tanners Company v. Eglinton	330
—— Trusts, <i>In re</i>	85	Young v. Inland Revenue	232
Wingate, <i>In the Goods of</i>	277	Yrisarri v. Clement	371
Winter, <i>In the Goods of</i>	271		
Wolff v. Oxholme	248, 310, 502	Z.	
Wool v. Anderston Foundry Co.	328	Zollverein, The	492
Wright v. Commissioners of In- land Revenue	362	Zyclinaki v. Zyclinski	97
Wright's Trusts, <i>In re</i> 23, 62, 77, 263			
Wych v. Meal	125		
Wycoff, <i>In the Goods of</i>	274, 282		
Wykeham, <i>In re</i>	55		

INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER.

EVERY independent State assumes by its laws to regulate the *status*, the acts, and the property, of those who are subject to it. So long as the persons whom these laws claim to affect, the actions of which they assume control, and the property on which they purport to act, are removed entirely from the operation and influence of the laws of all other independent States, which claim the same privilege of supreme legislation, the only difficulties which can occur are those which belong to the interpretation of a law, about the application of which there is no dispute. Directly, however, that either the persons, the property, or the actions, come within the range of the law of any such foreign State, the question is complicated by the introduction of a new element, and it is often difficult to determine how far each of the contending laws is entitled to the authority which it claims. In order to attain theoretical and perfect simplicity, each group of circumstances, as well as the jural relation between certain persons which results from it, should be under the domain of one law. If the society of each legislating State was entirely isolated, so that the individuals composing it were cut off from intercourse with all but their fellow subjects, the law of each State would have full operation within its own dominions, and could claim to extend itself no further. Once, during the history of the world, this uniformity was practically attained, under the supremacy of Rome, as the result of the unique position which the empire occupied amongst a number of semi-

civilized or barbarous communities, none of whom possessed a system of law which the imperial jurisprudence could stoop to recognise. The law of the Quirites, or *jus civile* proper, was indeed amplified and enriched by the jural customs of the Italian tribes, and the obligations which were based on the *jus gentium* in this sense of the term, being regarded as the natural results of civilisation among any body of men, formed eventually no inconsiderable part of the whole body of Roman law. Such rights and obligations, however, when adopted by the civil law (*jure civili comprobatae*) ceased to be, in any sense of the word, foreign to it; and this portion of Roman jurisprudence bore to the original stock a relation more analogous to that which at present exists between the common law and the statute law of England than to any other known to modern jurists. The *jus honorarium*, again, or the equitable law administered by the prætors, though specially applied to foreigners and those who were not possessed of the Roman franchise, and though dispensed with a certain regard to the nationality of the parties, was essentially Roman in its nature; and the right of any foreign law or custom to compete with the law as interpreted and enforced by the Roman magistrate seems never to have been asserted. There is not in fact, with the exception of an isolated passage in Gaius,^(a) which by no means demands such an interpretation, a single *dictum* of the Roman jurists which points to the existence of anything like private international law, in the modern sense of the term. Yet in other respects Roman jurisprudence reached a later stage of development, and ultimately of decay, than that to which any modern system has yet attained. The omission, if Rome had been a sovereign State surrounded by its equals in progress and civilisation, would have been inexplicable. The actual relation of the imperial mistress of the world to those who

(a) "Sponsoris et fidepromissoris heres non tenetur; nisi de peregrino fidepromissore queremus, et alio jure civitas ejus utatur."—Gai. iii. 120, cf. iii. 96.

were by turns her enemies and her dependents offers an intelligible explanation.

Huber, after speaking of the conflict of laws between independent and sovereign States, proceeds as follows: "It is not a matter for surprise that there should be no trace of this subject in Roman jurisprudence. The Empire of the Roman people, extending over all parts of the habitable globe, and everywhere acknowledging one uniform jural system, could never have been exposed to that conflict of various and independent laws which manifested itself as soon as the Empire was broken up into a number of distinct bodies. Nevertheless, the fundamental rules of this science must be sought for in the principles of Roman law, and rather in the Law of Nations than in the Roman civil law proper. It is clear that the question of what system of jurisprudence the inhabitants of independent States are to adopt in their mutual intercourse, belongs to the science of the Law of Nations."(a)

The existence of a similar gap in the jurisprudence of the dominant cities of Greece must be referred to a different cause. Between the Hellenes proper and the Barbarians, indeed—and it must be remembered that the Greek regarded as Barbarians all who were not Hellenes—there could of course be no possible international relations, public or private, except those of peace and war. It might, however, have been expected that between such cities as Athens and Sparta, Thebes and Corinth, whose intercourse with each other must have been close and frequent, the necessity of something like a "comity" in international private law would have been felt. Any such comity was, however, foreign to the spirit and traditions in which the Grecian citizen was brought up. The absolute independence and isolation of the Grecian city or State was the most sacred of his political ideas; and the large admixture in Grecian law of a religious element, peculiar to each city, rendered any relaxation of this jealous spirit of exclusion the more difficult. It may be that even these causes would

(a) Huber, *Prælect. Jur. Civ.* vol. ii. lib. 1. tit. 3, p. 25.

not have proved efficacious enough to restrain the natural development of international jurisprudence, had that development ever proceeded as far amongst the Grecian cities as it did in the Italian peninsula during the 700 years which followed their downfall. The soil of Greece, however, though the mother of philosophy and the arts, was far less adapted to the nurture of jurisprudence than that of Rome; and though the eloquence of Demosthenes and Æschines may dim the fame of Roman pleaders and modern advocates alike, even the age of such giants of oratory as these remained still, comparatively speaking, the infancy of the science of law.

It is pointed out by Huber, in the passage to which reference has been already made, that the overthrow of the Roman Empire, and the birth of a number of European independent States, with different local customs and nascent laws of their own, was the first cause of that *conflictus legum* from which the present system of private international law has sprung. This conflict was most frequently manifested in the competition of personal and territorial laws; *i.e.*, the conflict of the law to which the individual owed obedience by reason of his nationality, with that which claimed to command him in virtue of his presence within his territorial limits. "The moderns always assume," says Savigny (*History of Rom. Law*, vol. i. ch. 3), "that the law to which the individual owes obedience is that of the country where he lives; and that the property and contracts of every resident are regulated by the law of his domicil. In this theory, the distinction between native and foreigner is overlooked, and national descent is entirely disregarded. Not so, however, in the Middle Ages, when in the same country, and often indeed in the same city, the Lombard lived under the Lombardic, and the Roman under the Roman law. The same distinction of laws was also applicable to the different races of Germans, Frank, Burgundian and Goth, resident in the same place, each under his own law." It may probably be assumed, however, that the personal laws of *isolated*

foreigners were not at any period of the Middle Ages recognised from disinterested motives; and that what is called the comity of nations in this respect arose only when the intercourse between independent States was so frequent and so widely spread that it was necessary for each to adopt some such system in order to secure its reciprocal advantages. It is further pointed out by Savigny, that the presence of a large foreign element in any State sufficiently large to make its voice heard and its interests respected was another cause of its development. But it cannot be said that anything like a system, by which the proper limits of the authority of each municipal law were defined, which is the true scope and object of what is known as private international law, arose until the exigencies of modern commerce and modern civilisation demanded it.^(a) Geographical divisions, whether natural or political, have ceased in the present day to offer any real obstacle to the intercourse of nations; and how much the modern facilities for such communication have contributed to the development of the subject, will be better understood when a brief classification of its subject-matter has been given.

All municipal law—that is, all law enacted for its subjects by the legislative authority of an independent State—is particular in its application. In other words, such law is intended to apply to part only of mankind, and to them, in the majority of cases, only upon part of the earth's surface. Within its own territorial limits, and with regard to its own subjects, the law of an independent State is of course supreme; but its authority is more questionable with respect to the subjects of other States within those limits, or to its own subjects when beyond them. The personal law to which each individual was originally subject was undoubtedly the law of the State to which he belonged

(a) It is unnecessary, for the purposes of this work, to refer to the earlier writers by whom the principles of this branch of jurisprudence were first treated. They will be found collected in a convenient form, with the dates and titles of their works, at the commencement of Story's "*Conflict of Laws*."

by nationality ; but in modern civilisation the element of *residence* has been largely substituted for that of nationality, and the personal law of the individual is now commonly regarded as the *lex domicilii*, or law of the country in which he has fixed his home, rather than the *lex patriæ*, or law of the State to which he owes the allegiance of a subject. The distinction between *nationality* and *domicil*, in order to determine the nature and operation of the personal law, must therefore be considered ; as well as the other attributes which give to persons their legal existence. In connection with this part of the subject, it will be useful to consider some special classes of persons, such as foreign corporations, States, Sovereigns, and bodies politic, upon which the effect of personal as well as territorial law must necessarily be peculiar. Having thus ascertained what persons are recognised by municipal law, and how far different municipal laws may come into conflict respecting them, it will be necessary to treat of their property and their actions, showing the chief occasions upon which a similar conflict of law may arise. Lastly, there will remain for consideration the subject of procedure, in connection with those matters which the law of every tribunal, in its own right as the *lex fori*, may claim to decide for itself. Subordinate to this branch of inquiry will be the discussion of the recognition and enforcement of the decrees of one tribunal in those of another country—in other words, the question of the validity of foreign judgments. The following synopsis of the subject may therefore be presented.

PART I.—PERSONS. (CH. I.—V.)

(a) *Natural Persons.*

All laws being commands directed to persons, and affecting them in different ways, directly or indirectly, positively or negatively, the relation of the person to law must be clearly defined. This relation depends upon three elements (1) nationality, (2) domicil, (3) capacity. Taken together

the three constitute the *status* of the person, *i.e.*; the relation or standing of the person with respect to the law of the society in which he lives, and to the other members of that society.

(1) *Nationality*.—Nationality is the relation of the person to the sovereign state to which he owes allegiance, and exists either by birth or acquisition. It has already been pointed out that domicil has for many purposes in modern days taken the place that nationality formerly occupied, but the latter has still an importance of its own.

(2) *Domicil*.—Domicil constitutes that relation of the person to a particular state which arises from residence within its limits as a member of its community, and determines the personal law which controls him and his movable property.

(3) *Capacity*.—Capacity is the actual and legal power of acting as a free sane adult, and is only important in cases of its negotiation, as in the instance of a minor or lunatic.

In addition to these three elements of status, there is the fourth quasi-element of legitimacy; which, however, does not affect the general legal position of the person, but merely his relationship to certain other persons, and is not practically referred, in England, to a personal law. For its proper appreciation it will be necessary to discuss the law of marriage, of which it is a consequence.

(b) *Artificial and Conventional Persons.*

(1) *Corporations*.—Corporations are artificial persons, created by some municipal law, invested with certain attributes analogous to those of natural persons, and recognised by international comity beyond the territorial limits of the law which created them.

(2) *Sovereign States*.—States are artificial persons, created by the law of nations, sometimes impersonated in the form of an actual Sovereign, sometimes in an abstract form only, and recognised by the governments and the tribunals of similar States.

PART II.—PROPERTY. (CH. VI.—VII.)

It has been said that all law is directed towards persons, but it is obvious that in every case it must be directed to persons only with reference to their property or their actions. All property is divided into

(1) *Immovable Property*.—Under this head comes all landed property and things so connected with the soil as to be regarded by the law as part of it; including not only real estate by English law, but chattels real, or immovable personalty.

(2) *Movable Property*.—Under this head come all things which can be the subject of ownership that are not included in immovable property. These are regarded as adjuncts to the person of the owner, and are theoretically subject to his personal law.

Both these descriptions of property must be considered with reference to

- (i.) Jurisdiction,
- (ii.) Alienation by act or will of the owner, including
 - (a) Transfer *inter vivos*,
 - (b) Disposition by will,
- (iii.) Alienation by operation of law, including
 - (a) Succession on intestacy,
 - (b) Transfer on bankruptcy,
 - (c) Transfer on marriage,

so far as any of these occasions or incidents may give rise to a conflict of two or more municipal laws.

PART III.—ACTS. (CH. VIII.—IX.)

The actions of persons of which the law takes notice must be either (1) contracts, (2) torts, or (3) crimes.

(1) *Contracts* may give rise to a conflict of municipal laws, in respect of their

- a) Formalities.
- (b) Legality.
- (c) Construction and interpretation.
- (d) Nature and incidents of the obligation.
- (e) Performance.
- (f) Discharge other than performance.

(2) *Torts* may give rise to a conflict of municipal laws, in respect of the

- (a) Tortious or innocent nature of the act.
- (b) Measure of the wrong done.
- (c) Measure of the remedy.

(3) *Crimes*.—Inasmuch as crimes give rise to no obligation or jural relation *inter personas*, but only between the offender and the State whose law has been transgressed, they do not properly fall within the domain of *private* international law, and will not be considered here. A crime is, in fact, only a tort regarded in its relation to the State. A note, however, on English criminal jurisdiction is appended to Chapter IX.

PART IV.—PROCEDURE. (CH. X.—XI.)

(1) *Procedure Generally*.—The law of every country is appealed to by means of its tribunals. These will accept the decision of the competent law on each and all of the points already enumerated, that law being determined on the principles of private international law. They will, however, only grant their own remedies, according to their own rules. Hence the necessity of defining those matters which every tribunal will claim to decide arbitrarily for itself, as coming under the head of *procedure*.

(2) *Foreign Judgments*.—In connection with all the subjects enumerated in Parts I.—III., it frequently happens that the matters brought before a Court for its decision have already been the subject of inquiry and adjudication by some tribunal of a foreign State. It is necessary, therefore, to consider the recognition accorded to foreign judg-

ments in an English court, and the manner in which they may be enforced, as a branch of the subject of procedure, both in the case of decrees *in personam*, and judgments *in rem*, as well as those on the *status* of a person, which partake of the nature of both. In connection with this subject is considered the effect of a *lis alibi pendens*, and the conditions under which an action can and will be restrained by the English Courts.

FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC LAW.

Part I.—PERSONS.

CHAPTER I.

NATIONALITY.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. I.

OF the elements which compose a man's *status*, viewed as a subject of law, nationality is the first and most important. By a man's nationality is meant that political relationship which exists between him and the Sovereign State to which he owes allegiance; and this relationship is fixed, in different countries, by varying rules and principles.

Nationality
defined.

According to the English Common Law, nationality depended in all cases upon the place of a man's birth, following the feudal principle, which to a certain extent regarded all inhabitants of the soil as appendages to it. The view taken of the question by Roman law, which referred all questions of a man's *status* to that of his parents, was absolutely unrecognised in England until its statutory adoption; and the sole consideration was, whether the individual whose nationality had to be determined was or was not born within the King's allegiance. The only exceptions to this rule were those imposed by the doctrines of public international law, which required that the children of foreign ambassadors, to whom the privilege of extritoriality was attached, should be exempted from the rigour of the feudal principle; and further considered that the territory of any State, while

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. I.

Statutes
regulating
nationality—
birth abroad.

in the hostile occupation of an enemy's army, lost for the time being the national character which properly belonged to it. With these apparent exceptions, consistent in reality with the rule itself, all who were born on English soil, and no others, were English subjects.(a)

The first statute which qualified this principle was the 25 Edw. III. st. 2, which provided that "all children inheritors which from henceforth shall be born without the legiance of the King of England, whose fathers and mothers at the time of their birth shall be in the faith and legiance of the King, shall have and enjoy the same benefits and advantages, to have and bear the inheritance within the same legiance, as other inheritors aforesaid, in time to come; so always the mothers of such children do pass the sea by the licence and will of their husbands." It will be observed that the privileges of inheritance only (b) were conferred by this statute; and it was decided (c) that it did not confer even these upon the children of an English mother, by an alien father, born out of the allegiance. More recent statutes have, of course, robbed this decision of any importance. Even under this statute it was not required that the mother should be of English nationality, it having been decided in *Bacon's Case* (d) that the alien wife of a British subject was *quasi* under the King's allegiance.(e)

(a) This rule was formerly general throughout Europe: Hall, *Int. Law*, part ii. chap. v. § 68, and authorities there cited. In modern times the tendency of States has been to permit the children of aliens born within their boundaries to follow the nationality of the parents (Germany, Austria, Sweden, Norway, and Switzerland), giving them in some cases the right to elect at majority the nationality of their place of birth (France, Spain, Belgium, Greece, Bolivia, Russia, and Italy). The converse principle, of attributing the nationality of birth unless that of parentage is elected, is the principle followed (with modifications) by Portugal, Denmark, Holland, and (as explained in the text) Great Britain. See s. 4 of the Naturalisation Act, 1870, *infra*; Hall, *Int. Law*, *loc. cit.*

(b) But see Lord Bacon's argument in *Calvin's Case*, 2 St. Tr. 585, and *Bac. Ab. tit. "Aliens," A.*

(c) *Duroure v. Jones*, 4 Term Rep. 300.

(d) *Cro. Ch.* 602.

(e) By the Common Law, however, a woman's nationality was unchanged by her marriage: *Co. Litt.* 31 b; *Countess of Conway's Case*, 2 Knapp, 12 Jur. 348; *Countess de Wall's Case*, 12 Jur. 348.

By 7 Anne, c. 5, s. 3, it was next enacted that "the children of all natural-born subjects, born out of the allegiance of her Majesty, her heirs and successors, shall be deemed, adjudged, and taken to be natural-born subjects of this kingdom, to all intents, constructions, and purposes whatsoever." The principle just adverted to, as having been decided in *Bacon's Case*, that the transmission of nationality depends upon the father alone, was incorporated with this statute by 4 Geo. II. c. 21, s. 1. But it was not considered that the words "all intents, constructions, and purposes whatsoever," were large enough to include the power of transmitting such nationality to another generation; and 13 Geo. III. c. 21, was passed to add this privilege, thus extending the nationality of the grandfather to the second generation born out of the allegiance. Children of the third generation, on the same construction of the words of the statute, would of course be still excluded.

Thus both the children and grandchildren born abroad of a natural-born British subject are themselves natural-born British subjects by statute, but his grandchildren are not.^(a) The personal *status* created by these statutes is, in other words, personal only, and not transmissible.^(b) It may now be avoided at the will of the person affected by his making a "declaration of alienage" under s. 4 of the Naturalisation Act, 1870 (33 Vict. c. 14).

The new French Naturalisation Law (1890) enacts that children born in France of a father also born in France are French citizens, and the military law imposes military service upon such persons as French citizens. It is obvious that this conflicts with the nationality conferred upon the grandchildren born abroad of natural-born British subjects by the above statutes; but it was stated in the House of Commons by the Foreign Under-Secretary (Sir James

(a) Cockburn on Nationality, pp. 7-10, 94.

(b) *De Geer v. Stone*, 22 Ch. D. 243, and see authorities there cited. In a recent case this statutory nationality in the case of an infant was held sufficient to give the Court jurisdiction to appoint a guardian: *In re Willoughby*, 30 Ch. D. 324.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. I.

Aliens born
in England.

Fergusson) that the Government had been advised that they had no proper ground of protest against the new French law. There can be no doubt that every State has the right to legislate as to the nationality of persons born within its territorial limits.

The feudal rule that persons born within the territory of the State (and no other) were subjects of the State was thus enlarged in one direction in favour of British subjects abroad. Until the passing of the Naturalisation Act, 1870 (33 Vict. c. 14), it had not been modified in favour of aliens and their children born here; but it was enacted by s. 4 of that statute that any person who was a natural-born subject by reason of being born within the dominions of the Crown, and was also at the time of his birth a subject of a foreign State by the law of such State, might make a declaration of alienage (in manner prescribed) when of full age, and should thereby cease to be a British subject. The section is as follows:—

How British-
born subject
may cease to
be such.

“4. Any person who by reason of his having been born within the dominions of her Majesty is a natural-born subject, but who also at the time of his birth became under the law of any foreign State a subject of such State, and is still such subject, may, if of full age and not under any disability, make a declaration of alienage in manner aforesaid, and from and after the making of such declaration of alienage such person shall cease to be a British subject. Any person who is born out of her Majesty's dominions of a father being a British subject may, if of full age and not under any disability, make a declaration of alienage in manner aforesaid, and from and after the making of such declaration shall cease to be a British subject.”

By s. 14, when any British subject has become an alien under this Act, he is not discharged from liability in respect of any acts done before the date of his so becoming an alien.

Nationality—
how far indis-
soluble.

The above statement of the law defining and limiting the acquisition of British nationality by birth leads naturally to the inquiry how that nationality can be

lost. The maxim "*Nemo potest exuere patriam*" expressed, not only the original views of England, but probably of all other European States. Allegiance was a debt and duty to the Sovereign, co-extensive with the life of the subject. "It is a principle of universal law that the natural-born subject of one prince cannot by any act of his own—no, not by swearing allegiance to another—put off or discharge his natural allegiance to the former; for this natural allegiance was intrinsic and primitive and antecedent to the other, and cannot be diverted without the concurrent act of that prince to whom it was first due." (a)

The tenacity with which the principle of indissoluble allegiance was always maintained by Great Britain is well known as one of the causes of her differences with the United States at the commencement of the present century, and was conspicuous in bringing about the war of 1812. In the year 1842 it was asserted by Lord Ashburton, in 1848 by Lord Palmerston, and in 1866 by Lord Clarendon, in the course of negotiations with the United States. How diametrically opposed to this principle was the American theory will be best seen by contrasting with it the preamble of the Act of July 27, 1868, on this subject: "Whereas the right of expatriation is a natural and inherent right of all people indispensable to the enjoyment of the rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; and whereas, in the recognition of this principle, this Government has freely received emigrants from all nations, and invested them with the rights of citizenship; and whereas it is claimed that such American citizens, with their descendants, are subjects of foreign States, owing allegiance to the Governments thereof; and whereas it is necessary to public peace that this claim of perpetual allegiance should be promptly and finally disavowed; therefore, *Be it enacted* that any declaration, instruction, opinion, order, or decision of any officers of this Government which denies, restricts, impairs, or questions the right of expatriation is hereby declared

(a) Blackstone, Comm. i. 370. Cf. Lord Coke in *Calvin's Case*, 7 Co. 5 a.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. I.

Nationality—
how divested
by naturalisa-
tion abroad.

inconsistent with the fundamental principles of this Government.” (a)

The “right of expatriation” is not, perhaps, the happiest of phrases, but it is manifest that the feudal theory of indissoluble allegiance had become an anachronism, and a Royal Commission was appointed in May 1868 to inquire into the English laws of naturalisation and allegiance generally. The result of that inquiry was the passing of the Naturalisation Act, 1870, (b) by which the capacity of any British subject to renounce his allegiance was definitely established. It is enacted by s. 6 of that statute that any British subject who should thereafter or had already voluntarily become naturalised in a foreign State should from that time be deemed to have ceased to be a British subject, and be regarded as an alien. The same section contained a proviso enabling persons already naturalised abroad to retain their British nationality by making a declaration to that effect within two years from the passing of the Act. British nationality, therefore, is now permanently diverted and lost by voluntarily going through the forms of naturalisation in a foreign State. It must be borne in mind that the Naturalisation Act, 1870, did not purport to declare the law, but to enact; and it will be seen below that this is not the only particular in which it effected an important alteration. The text of s. 6 is as follows:—

“*Expatriation.*

Capacity of
British sub-
ject to re-
nounce alle-
giance to her
Majesty.

“6. Any British subject who has at any time before, or may at any time after, the passing of this Act, when in any foreign State, and not under any disability, voluntarily become naturalised in such State, shall, from and after the time of his so having become naturalised in such foreign State, be deemed to have ceased to be a British subject and be regarded as an alien: Provided—

(a) Wharton, *Conf. of Law*, ed. 1872, chap. i. ss. 3, 4. For other American authorities on the “right of expatriation,” see Dana’s *Wheaton*, p. 143, note; and see generally the Report of the Royal Commission of 1870 on Naturalisation and Allegiance.

(b) 33 Vict. c. 14.

“(1) That where any British subject has before the passing of this Act voluntarily become naturalised in a foreign State, and yet is desirous of remaining a British subject, he may, at any time within two years after the passing of this Act, make a declaration that he is desirous of remaining a British subject, and upon such declaration, hereinafter referred to as a declaration of British nationality, being made, and upon his taking the oath of allegiance, the declarant shall be deemed to be and to have been continually a British subject; with this qualification, that he shall not, when within the limits of the foreign State in which he has been naturalised, be deemed to be a British subject unless he has ceased to be a subject of that State, in pursuance of the laws thereof, or in pursuance of a treaty to that effect:

“(2) A declaration of British nationality may be made, and the oath of allegiance be taken as follows: that is to say, if the declarant be in the United Kingdom, in the presence of a justice of the peace; if elsewhere in her Majesty's dominions, in the presence of any judge of any court of civil or criminal jurisdiction, of any justice of the peace, or of any other officer for the time being authorised by law in the place in which the declarant is, to administer an oath for any judicial or other legal purpose. If out of her Majesty's dominions, in the presence of any officer in the diplomatic or consular service of her Majesty.”

“*Naturalised in such foreign State.*”—Under this section it has been held that an Englishman who acquired a *landrecht* or *indigenat* in a Swiss canton in the year 1842 became a Swiss subject and ceased to be a British subject. It was contended that a Swiss canton was not a “foreign State” for this purpose, not having the power of declaring

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. I.

war or peace. Stirling, J., however, held that there was no substantial difference between the *status* acquired and nationality, and that such difference as existed arose solely from the fact that down to 1848 the Swiss cantons constituted a group of independent States, united for certain purposes by federation.^(a)

By s. 14, when any British subject has become an alien under this Act, he is not discharged from liability in respect of any acts done before the date of his so becoming an alien.

Nationality
by naturalisa-
tion—how
divested.

The case of aliens who have become naturalised British subjects, and who may desire to resume the nationality of the State to which they originally belonged, is provided for by s. 3.

Power of
naturalised
aliens to
divest them-
selves of their
status in
certain cases.

“3. Where her Majesty has entered into a convention with any foreign State to the effect that the subjects or citizens of that State who have been naturalised as British subjects may divest themselves of their *status* as such subjects, it shall be lawful for her Majesty, by Order in Council, to declare that such convention has been entered into by her Majesty; and from and after the date of such Order in Council, any person being originally a subject or citizen of the State referred to in such Order, who has been naturalised as a British subject, may, within such limit of time as may be provided in the convention, make a declaration of alienage, and from and after the date of his so making such declaration such person shall be regarded as an alien, and as a subject of the State to which he originally belonged as aforesaid.

“A declaration of alienage may be made as follows; that is to say: If the declarant be in the United Kingdom, in the presence of any justice of the peace; if elsewhere in her Majesty's dominions, in the presence of any judge of any court of civil or criminal jurisdiction, of any justice of the peace, or of any other officer for the time being authorised by law in the place in which the declarant is to administer an oath for any judicial or other legal purpose.

(a) *In re Trufort, Trafford v. Blane*, 36 Ch. D. 600, 612.

If out of her Majesty's dominions, in the presence of any officer in the diplomatic or consular service of her Majesty."

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. I.

The convention with the United States made in pursuance of this section will be found in a schedule to the amending statute, 35 & 36 Vict. c. 39 (Naturalisation Act, 1872). S. 3 of the same amending Act was passed to remove doubts as to the effect of the 1870 Act on the rights in property of women married before the passing of that Act. See s. 10 of the 1870 Act, *infra*, p. 18.

The tie of allegiance, however, though spoken of by Lord Coke as *duplex et reciprocum ligamen*, involving the duty of obedience on the one hand, and the duty of protection on the other,^(a) has always been regarded as capable of solution by the will of the Sovereign. Thus, allegiance is dissolved by cession, by conquest, or by the separation of one portion of the Sovereign's dominions from the rest in such a manner that the separated portion becomes an independent State. On such a dissolution, the resident inhabitants of the territory ceded, separated, or conquered lose their former nationality, and become subjects of the new State to which they are assigned or attached. It has been sometimes said that the inhabitants of the separated territory have it at their own election to determine to which Sovereign they shall bear allegiance in the future.^(b) There can be no doubt that such an option may be given by the express provisions of the treaty or statute by which the separation is governed,^(c) in which case a definite period is usually named within which the option must be exercised by quitting or remaining inhabitants of the ceded or separated territory.^(d)

Nationality—
lost by cession,
conquest, or
separation.

(a) *Calvin's Case*, 7 Co. 1, and 27 b.

(b) *Re Bruce*, 2 Cr. & J. 436, 450; *Doe v. Arkwright*, 5 C. P. 575; *Doe v. Acklam*, 2 B. & C. 779; *Doe v. Mulcaster*, 5 B. & C. 771.

(c) *Jephson v. Riera*, 3 Kn. P. C. 130.

(d) The Anglo-German agreement for the cession of Heligoland, which is now (July 1890) under the consideration of Parliament, reserves to all natives of the ceded territory "the right of opting for British nationality by means of a declaration to be made by themselves, and in the case of children under age, by their parents or guardians, which must be sent in before the 1st January 1892": Art. xii. (2). It is also provided that all persons, natives of the ceded territory, and their children born before the date of the

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. I.

Where no such option is expressly given, the question is treated by Lord Coleridge, C.J., in a recent case,^(a) as one of fact. When a Sovereign by treaty relinquishes his claim to the allegiance of the inhabitants of specified territories, it becomes a question of fact whether a particular individual remained after the cession (or the limited time) an inhabitant of the specified territory and became thereby a citizen of the State into which it passed as an integral part. In no case has it been held that any inhabitant of the ceded or separated territory has the right to remain an inhabitant of it, and at the same time to retain the allegiance and nationality of the State which ceded or permitted the separation.

Union under
one Crown—
Calvin's Case.

The union, temporary or permanent, of two kingdoms under one Sovereign has given rise to the question in a slightly varied form. In *Calvin's Case* ^(b) it was decided that persons born in Scotland after the accession of James I. to the throne of England (called *postnati*) were not aliens; and the *ratio decidendi* in that case appears to be that allegiance is due to the Sovereign in his natural, and not in his political, capacity. That is to say, the allegiance of the *postnatus* being due to the natural person, James, and, James being King of England as well as of Scotland, the allegiance is not due to James as King of Scotland only, but to James as a whole; and the *postnatus* is therefore an English subject. The doctrine is accepted by the judges in *Isaacson v. Durant* ^(supra) to the extent that, so long as the inhabitants of two countries are subjects of the same person, the Court is "not concerned to deny that they are in the allegiance of the same person in his natural, and not in his political, capacity." But so long as the same person remains Sovereign of both countries, the proposition is apparently

agreement for cession, shall be free from the obligation of service in the military and naval forces of Germany: Art. xii. (3).

^(a) *Isaacson v. Durant*, 17 Q. B. D. 54; 55 L. J. Q. B. 331, 336. Westlake (Priv. Int. Law, § 27) says that the question is decided by the voluntary transfer or retention of domicile, which is another way of stating the same thing.

^(b) 7 Co. 1; 2 St. Tr. 585.

immaterial, except for the purpose of the actual decision in *Calvin's Case*. As a proposition involving any further practical consequences, it seems to be finally rejected by the Court in *Isaacson v. Durant* (*suprà*), the judgment in which, after referring to the feudal character of the relationship between Crown and subject in mediæval times, and to the language of modern legislation, concludes by saying: "The later statutes speak of the Crown, and not the Sovereign, and, to our minds, clearly recognise that to the King, *in his politic, and not in his personal, capacity* is the allegiance of his subjects due."^(a) Unquestionably, it would be difficult to support the old feudal theory at the present day, when republics form so considerable a part of the commonwealth of nations, and the doctrines of allegiance and nationality have to be applied to sovereign States whose only character or capacity is political.

But although the doctrine of *Calvin's Case* is still law, so that, *e.g.*, persons born in Hanover whilst the Georges reigned in England were regarded as of British nationality,^(b) yet the *dicta* in *Calvin's Case* which suggest that upon a subsequent division of the united kingdoms the *postnati* (meaning persons born after and during the union) might owe a double allegiance *ad fidem utriusque Regis*, must now be regarded as incorrect. The actual decision in *Isaacson v. Durant* (*suprà*), to which reference has so often been made, was that, as soon as the Crowns of Hanover and England became divided by the accession of Queen Victoria, the Hanoverians ceased to owe allegiance to the British Crown, and became aliens; and that those born in Hanover after the separation of the kingdoms were *à fortiori* in the same position. "The Crowns had by accident been united in the same person; but when the union of the Crowns came to an end the union of allegiance ceased too."^(b)

Subsequent
separation of
united king-
doms.

The case of *Isaacson v. Durant*, in which the right to Aliens, disabilities of.

(a) *Isaacson v. Durant*, 55 L. J. Q. B. at p. 339; 17 Q. B. D. 54.

(b) See the judgment in *Isaacson v. Durant*, 17 Q. B. D. 54; 55 L. J. Q. B. 331.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. I.

exercise the parliamentary franchise was concerned, leads naturally to the subject of the disabilities of aliens in England. By the Common Law, an alien could not hold landed property, not even under lease. It is stated that until the reign of Edward I., when they were permitted by charter to hire houses of their own, foreign merchants in England always lived in lodgings, their landlords acting as their brokers and selling their merchandise for them.^(a) By positive enactment in the reign of Henry VIII. (32 Hen. VIII. c. 16, s. 83) it was declared that all leases to alien artificers or handicraftsmen of any dwelling-house or shop should be void, and a penalty of £100 was imposed on both lessor or lessee. It was not until the 7 & 8 Vict. c. 66, that the harshness of this law was in terms relaxed, though in practice it had, of course, become obsolete. By the statute just mentioned, aliens were made capable of holding lands or houses for residence or business for a term not exceeding twenty-one years, as if natural-born subjects, except that they were not to acquire the right of voting for members of Parliament. The right of an alien to take and hold personal property is also enacted by the same statute; though this seems only to have been declaratory of the Common Law.^(b)

The position of an alien even after the passing of the 7 & 8 Vict. c. 66, was nevertheless one of considerable hardship. He was incapable of holding real estate in fee, or for life, or for years, except that for residence or business purposes he might take a lease not exceeding twenty-one years. If an alien purchased a freehold estate, the Sovereign became entitled to it. If copyhold, it escheated to the lord.^(c) Not only was he incapable of holding, but of inheriting; and at common law he was incapable of transmitting an estate by descent, so that wherever it was necessary to trace descent through an alien, it was impossible to inherit.^(d) But so far as the

(a) Co. 2 Inst. 57; Chitty, Comm. Law, i. 131; Cockburn on Nationality, p. 140.

(b) *Calvin's Case*, 7 Co. 17a.

(c) Ventris, 413, 416, 418; Com. Dig. Alien, C (1), (2).

(d) Ventris, *ibid.*; Com. Dig. *ibid.*; Cockburn, p. 143.

power of transmitting an estate was concerned, this hardship was cured by 11 & 12 Will. III. c. 6, which provided that natural-born subjects might derive title by descent through an alien ancestor.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. I.

All these disabilities, however, have now been removed by the Naturalisation Act, 1870, and an alien may now hold both real and personal property in the United Kingdom without any restriction, except that no qualification for any franchise or office is to be gained thereby. The enacting section is as follows:—

Disabilities
removed by
Naturalisation
Act, 1870.

"Status of Aliens in the United Kingdom.

"2. Real and personal property of every description may be taken, acquired, held, and disposed of by an alien in the same manner in all respects as by a natural-born British subject; and a title to real and personal property of every description may be derived through, from, or in succession to an alien in the same manner in all respects as through, from, or in succession to a natural-born British subject: Provided—

Capacity of
an alien as to
property.

- "(1) That this section shall not confer any right in an alien to hold real property situate out of the United Kingdom, and shall not qualify an alien for any office or for any municipal, parliamentary, or other franchise:
- "(2) That this section shall not entitle an alien to any right or privilege as a British subject, except such rights and privileges in respect of property as are hereby expressly given to him:
- "(3) That this section shall not affect any estate or interest in real or personal property to which any person has or may become entitled, either mediately or immediately, in possession or expectancy, in pursuance of any disposition made before the passing of this Act, or in pursuance of any devolution by law on the death of any person dying before the passing of this Act."

"Held and disposed of."—It has been held on this

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. I.

section that the privileges conferred on British subjects by Lord Kingsdown's Act (24 & 25 Vict. c. 114) of making a valid will either according to the *lex loci*, the *lex domicilii*, or the *lex domicilii originis*, are not by virtue of it extended to aliens, although "dispose of" includes disposition by will.(a)

By s. 14 it is provided that nothing in the Act shall qualify an alien to be the owner of a British ship. But an alien may, of course, purchase a British ship, which thereby ceases to be British; and if a vessel is built in England to be sold to a foreigner, and to be delivered to him abroad, she is not, it seems, a "British ship" within the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854; so that an assignment of her need not be by bill of sale, and does not require registration as such.(b)

By s. 5 the right of an alien to a jury *de medietate lingue* is abolished.

Nationality
acquired by
naturalisation.

The acquisition of British nationality by naturalisation is regulated by ss. 7, 8, and 9 of the Act of 1870. In order to obtain a certificate of naturalisation, it will be seen that an alien must have resided in the United Kingdom, or have been in the service of the Crown, for not less than five years. S. 8 deals with the case of natural-born British subjects who have become "statutory aliens" under the Act itself.

"Naturalisation and Resumption of British Nationality."

Certificate of
naturalisation.

"7. An alien who within such limited time before making the application hereinafter mentioned as may be allowed by one of her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, either by general order or on any special occasion, has resided in the United Kingdom for a term of not less than five years, or has been in the service of the Crown for a term of not less than five years, and intends, when naturalised, either to reside in the United Kingdom, or to serve under the Crown, may apply to one of her Majesty's

(a) *Bloxam v. Favre*, 9 P. D. 130; *In the Goods of Buseck*, 6 P. D. 211.

(b) *Union Bank of London v. Lenanton*, 3 C. P. D. 243.

Principal Secretaries of State for a certificate of naturalisation.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. I.

“The applicant shall adduce in support of his application such evidence of his residence or service, and intention to reside or serve, as such Secretary of State may require. The said Secretary of State, if satisfied with the evidence adduced, shall take the case of the applicant into consideration, and may, with or without assigning any reason, give or withhold a certificate as he thinks most conducive to the public good, and no appeal shall lie from his decision, but such certificate shall not take effect until the applicant has taken the oath of allegiance.

“An alien to whom a certificate of naturalisation is granted shall in the United Kingdom be entitled to all political and other rights, powers, and privileges, and be subject to all obligations, to which a natural-born British subject is entitled or subject in the United Kingdom, with this qualification, that he shall not, when within the limits of the foreign State of which he was a subject previously to obtaining his certificate of naturalisation, be deemed to be a British subject unless he has ceased to be a subject of that State in pursuance of the laws thereof, or in pursuance of a treaty to that effect.

“The said Secretary of State may in manner aforesaid grant a special certificate of naturalisation to any person with respect to whose nationality as a British subject a doubt exists, and he may specify in such certificate that the grant thereof is made for the purpose of quieting doubts as to the right of such person to be a British subject, and the grant of such special certificate shall not be deemed to be any admission that the person to whom it was granted was not previously a British subject.

“An alien who has been naturalised previously to the passing of this Act may apply to the Secretary of State for a certificate of naturalisation under this Act; and it shall be lawful for the said Secretary of State to grant such certificate to such naturalised alien upon the same terms and subject to the same conditions in and upon which such

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. I.

Certificate of
re-admission
to British
nationality.

certificate might have been granted if such alien had not been previously naturalised in the United Kingdom.

"8. A natural-born British subject who has become an alien in pursuance of this Act, and is in this Act referred to as a statutory alien, may, on performing the same conditions and adducing the same evidence as is required in the case of an alien applying for a certificate of nationality, apply to one of her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State for a certificate, hereinafter referred to as a certificate of re-admission to British nationality, re-admitting him to the *status* of a British subject. The said Secretary of State shall have the same discretion as to the giving or withholding of the certificate as in the case of a certificate of naturalisation, and an oath of allegiance shall in like manner be required previously to the giving of the certificate.

"A statutory alien to whom a certificate of re-admission to British nationality has been granted shall, from the date of the certificate of re-admission, but not in respect of any previous transaction, resume his position as a British subject; with this qualification, that within the limits of the foreign State of which he became a subject he shall not be deemed to be a British subject unless he has ceased to be a subject of that foreign State according to the laws thereof, or in pursuance of a treaty to that effect.

"The jurisdiction by this Act conferred on the Secretary of State in the United Kingdom in respect of the grant of a certificate of re-admission to British nationality, in the case of any statutory alien being in any British possession, may be exercised by the Governor of such possession; and residence in such possession shall, in the case of such person, be deemed equivalent to residence in the United Kingdom.

Form of oath
of allegiance.

"9. The oath in this Act referred to as the oath of allegiance shall be in the form following; that is to say,

"'I, —, do swear that I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to her Majesty Queen Victoria, her heirs and successors, according to law. So help me God.'"

"*Has resided . . . not less than five years.*"—But the

privileges of denization can still be granted by royal letters patent (s. 13), and in this case no previous residence is required.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. I.

"*All political and other rights.*"—These words impliedly repeal, *quoad* persons naturalised under this Act, the restrictions imposed by 12 & 13 Will. III. c. 2, s. 3; which enacted that neither naturalised persons nor persons made denizens should be capable of entering the Privy Council, nor of becoming a member of either House of Parliament, nor of any place or office of trust, nor to take any grant from the Crown. When naturalisation was effected by an Act of Parliament, it was usual in the case of any distinguished foreigner to repeal the 12 & 13 Will. III. c. 2, s. 3 (and also the 1 Geo. I. st. 2, c. 4), so far as he was concerned. The above restrictions are still operative as regards denizens; and denization by letters patent therefore, though preserved by s. 13, is likely to fall into disuse.

"*With this qualification.*"—It has been recently held by Kay, J., that the effect of this qualification is to prevent the naturalisation from being complete, and to disable a person so naturalised from transmitting British nationality to his children.(a) The Court of Appeal, to whom the case went, decided it on another ground, and avoided expressing an opinion on this point.

Certificates of Naturalisation.—An order of the Home Secretary fixing the fee for grant of certificate and registration appeared in the *London Gazette* for 1887, p. 5. A list of persons to whom certificates of naturalisation or re-admission to British nationality have been granted during each month in the year is published in the *London Gazette* early in the month following.

(a) *Re Bourgeoise*, 41 Ch. D. 310. See a note on this decision in the *Law Quarterly Review*, vol. iv. p. 226. On affidavits as to the French law, it was held that the father had not ceased to be a subject of France; but there appears to be a *petitio principii* in the reasoning. English law held the naturalisation to be incomplete, because French law regarded the individual as still a French subject. The French law still regarded the individual as a subject, only (it appears) if the English naturalisation was incomplete. The contention that naturalisation was absolutely *prohibited* by French law seems not to be warranted by the affidavits.

B

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. I.

As to the mode of proving certificates, declarations of alienage, &c., see s. 10 of the Act.

British Possessions.—It will be observed that the jurisdiction given to Governors of British possessions only extends to grants of *re-admission* to British nationality. Grants of British nationality generally in the colonies are governed by s. 16 of the Act:—

Power of colonies to legislate with respect to naturalisation.

“16. All laws, statutes, and ordinances which may be duly made by the Legislature of any British possession for imparting to any person the privileges, or any of the privileges, of naturalisation, to be enjoyed by such person within the limits of such possession, shall within such limits have the authority of law, but shall be subject to be confirmed or disallowed by her Majesty in the same manner, and subject to the same rules in and subject to which her Majesty has power to confirm or disallow any other laws, statutes, or ordinances in that possession.”

The former statute on this subject was 10 & 11 Vict. c. 83, repealed by the schedule to this Act.

National status of married women and infants.

The national *status* of married women and children is regulated by s. 10 of the Act of 1870. With this section should be read s. 3 of the Naturalisation Act, 1872 (35 & 36 Vict. c. 39), which provides that nothing contained in the Naturalisation Act, 1870, shall deprive any married woman of any estate or interest in real or personal property to which she may have become entitled previously to the passing of that Act, or affect such estate or interest to her prejudice.

“*National Status of Married Women and Infant Children.*

National status of married women and infant children.

“10. The following enactments shall be made with respect to the national *status* of women and children :

“(1) A married woman shall be deemed to be a subject of the State of which her husband is for the time being a subject :

“(2) A widow being a natural-born British subject, who has become an alien by or in consequence of her marriage, shall be deemed to be a statutory alien,

and may as such at any time during widowhood obtain a certificate of re-admission to British nationality in manner provided by this Act:

PART I.
PERSONS.
CAP. I.

- “(3) Where the father being a British subject, or the mother being a British subject and a widow, becomes an alien in pursuance of this Act, every child of such father or mother who during infancy has become resident in the country where the father or mother is naturalised, and has, according to the laws of such country, become naturalised therein, shall be deemed to be a subject of the State of which the father or mother has become a subject, and not a British subject:
- “(4) Where the father, or the mother being a widow, has obtained a certificate of re-admission to British nationality, every child of such father or mother who during infancy has become resident in the British dominions with such father or mother, shall be deemed to have resumed the position of a British subject to all intents:
- “(5) Where the father, or the mother being a widow, has obtained a certificate of naturalisation in the United Kingdom, every child of such father or mother who during infancy has become resident with such father or mother in any part of the United Kingdom, shall be deemed to be a naturalised British subject.”

Infant Children.—Sub-s. (5) of this section is apparently intended to meet the case of children born before the certificate of naturalisation is obtained. It is plain that, so far as these are concerned, they do not acquire British nationality unless they reside with the naturalised parent in the United Kingdom. But it would *à fortiori* apply to children born after the certificate of naturalisation is obtained, assuming the opinion of Kay, J., in *Re Bourgeoise*,^(a) that such certificate does not give the power of

(a) 41 Ch. D. 310, 320, citing *Fitch v. Weber*, 6 Hare, 51. Cf. authorities cited in *De Geer v. Stone*, 22 Ch. D. 243.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. I.

Nationality
distinct from
domicil.

transmitting nationality to descendants, to be correct. The Court of Appeal, in the case cited, left this question unanswered, as one of great difficulty.^(a) It is, however, exceedingly difficult to find anything in the Act which would give this power to persons naturalised under it; having regard more especially to the construction put by the Legislature, in passing the 13 Geo. III. c. 21, upon the much larger language of the 7 Anne, c. 5, s. 3, and the 4 Geo. II. c. 21.

It will be seen that all the legislation which has taken place on this subject proceeds on the principle that a man is unable of himself, without statutory assistance, to change his nationality. In the words of Lord Hatherley in *Udny v. Udny*,^(b) "the question of naturalisation and allegiance is distinct from that of domicil. A man cannot, at present at least, put off and resume at will obligations of obedience to the Government of the country of which at his birth he is a subject, but he may many times change his domicil." The Act of which a summary has just been given has rendered that possible which was not so, at least in England, when Lord Hatherley spoke, but the essential distinction between domicil and nationality must nevertheless be borne in mind in considering its provisions. In *Moorhouse v. Lord*,^(c) Lord Kingsdown, speaking of the acquisition of a French domicil, is reported as saying that, in order to effect such a result, a man must intend to become a Frenchman instead of an Englishman. But, as Lord Westbury points out, in his judgment in the case of *Udny v. Udny*,^(d) just referred to, these words are likely to mislead, if they were intended to signify that for a change of domicil there must be a change of nationality, that is, of natural allegiance. That would be "to confound

(a) Mr. Dicey, in an elaborate note on this question in the *Law Quarterly Review*, vol. v. (for 1889), p. 438, approves of Kay, J.'s opinion that the children of persons naturalised under this Act are aliens. See, for arguments on the other side, a note in *Law Quarterly Review*, 1888, vol. iv. p. 226.

(b) *Udny v. Udny*, L. R. 1 H. L., Sc. 441, 452.

(c) 10 H. L. C. 272. And see *Haldane v. Eckford*, L. R. 8 Eq. 631; *In re Capdevielle*, 2 H. & C. 985; and *Attorney-General v. Countess de Waldstatt*, 3 H. & C. 374.

(d) L. R. 1 H. L., Sc. 460.

the political and civil states of an individual, and to destroy the difference between *patria* and *domicilium*." This essential distinction will become more manifest, when the law of domicil has been considered.

PART I.
PERSONS.
CAP. I.

SUMMARY.

Nationality, according to the English Common Law, was p. 1. decided absolutely and once for all by the place of birth. Those who were born within the allegiance of the British Crown, and those only, were regarded throughout their lives as British subjects.

By the statutes previous to 33 & 34 Vict. c. 14 (25 pp. 2, 3. Edw. III. st. 2, 7 Anne, c. 5, s. 3, 4 Geo. II. c. 21, and 13 Geo. III. c. 21), the privileges of nationality were conferred on the descendants, up to and including the second generation, of a natural-born British subject who were born abroad, the transmission of this statutory nationality depending upon the father alone.

By 33 & 34 Vict. c. 14, the restrictions on the capacities pp. 6-18. of aliens were abolished so far as the power of inheriting or otherwise taking British land was concerned, and statutory means were provided (superseding those which had formerly existed) for the naturalisation and denaturalisation of aliens in Great Britain, and of British subjects abroad, including the acquisition of political rights.

The nationality of a married woman follows that of her pp. 18, 19. husband, and the nationality of children follows that of the father, or of the mother if a widow. A married woman who becomes a widow may change her nationality under the provisions of 33 & 34 Vict. c. 14.

The Legislatures of British possessions and colonies may p. 18. confer a limited British nationality, valid within their territorial limits.

On the cession or abandonment of territory, by conquest pp. 9, 10. or otherwise, the nationality of the inhabitants is generally provided for by treaty; but in the absence of treaty provisions, will probably depend upon the voluntary transfer or retention of their domicil.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. II.

CHAPTER II.

DOMICIL.

Domicil—
defined and
explained.

By the law of England, and of all other civilised countries, each individual has ascribed to him at his birth two distinct legal *status* or conditions; one by virtue of which he becomes the *subject* of some particular country, binding him by the tie of natural allegiance, which is called his political *status* or nationality, and which has been discussed in the preceding chapter; the other, by virtue of which he becomes the *citizen* of some particular country, as such possessed of certain municipal rights, and subject to certain obligations. This is called his civil *status*, entirely distinct from the first, which depends on different laws in different countries; whereas the civil *status* is governed universally by the single principle of *domicil*, the criterion established by international law for determining it. (a) As to the proper definition of domicil, much difficulty has always been felt. Dr. Phillimore defines it as "a residence at a particular place, accompanied with positive or presumptive proof of an intention to remain there for an unlimited time." (b) There can be no doubt that this is the *kind* of residence which is essential to domicil, but the conception itself may be, perhaps, more accurately explained as *the relation of an individual to a particular State which arises from his resi-*

(a) Per Lord Westbury in *Udny v. Udny*, L. R. 1 H. L., Sc. 460.

(b) Phillimore's Law of Domicil, p. 13. Adopted by Lord Westbury in *Udny v. Udny*. In *Bell v. Kennedy*, L. R. 1 H. L., Sc. 307, the same judge said that domicil was "the relation which the law creates between an individual and a particular locality or country;" which is said in *Abd-ul Messih v. Farra*, 13 App. Cas. 431; 57 L. J. P. C. 91, to be more accurate.

dence within its limits as a member of its community. There must be always one particular State towards which this relation exists, and there can never be more than one at the same time.(a) (Story's Conflict of Laws, § 45.) Mr. Westlake (Private International Law, § 30) asserts that domicile is "the legal conception of residence," particularised and defined only for the sake of legal precision; but as he admits immediately afterwards that residence is not domicile, unless accompanied by the particular circumstances under which the law will recognise it, it is evident that such a definition is not entirely satisfactory.(b) What those circumstances are is just the question which it is the object of definition to answer. Where a man resides is always a matter of fact,(c) and when this fact is once ascertained, the legal idea of domicile comes at once into existence. There must therefore be a territory or country with which to associate the idea of *domicil*; and mere residence in a community, exempt from the real local jurisdiction (as at Shanghai in China), will not do.(d)

The domicile which attaches to a man at the moment of his birth, generally spoken of as the domicile of origin, is in ordinary cases that of his father; though where a child is posthumous or illegitimate (e) the domicile of its mother is necessarily taken to decide its own. Cases can of course be suggested where the domicile must be decided by the place of birth, or even some other place; as, for instance, in the case of a child found exposed, whose parents are unknown. In ordinary cases, however, the domicile of origin is that of

(a) As to the possibility of a double domicile, see *Somerville v. Somerville*, 5 Ves. 749.

(b) See *Maltass v. Maltass*, 1 Roberts, 74, and *Munro v. Munro*, 7 Cl. & F. 842.

(c) *Bempde v. Johnstone*, 3 Ves. Jun. 201.

(d) *Tootal's Trusts*, 23 Ch. D. 532. "Residence in a territory or country is an essential part of the legal idea of domicile": per Chitty, J., at p. 538. The same was held in *Abd-ul Messih v. Farra*, 13 App. Cas. 431; 57 L. J. P. C. 88.

(e) If, however, an illegitimate child have a father whose paternity is fixed, by acknowledgment or otherwise, the domicile of that father attaches to it: *Re Wright's Trusts*, 2 K. & J. 595.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. II.

one of the parents, and during legal infancy it changes with that from which it is derived. Mr. Westlake points out (P. I. Law, § 37) that a married minor must be regarded as *sui juris* for the purposes of domicil, since on his or her marriage a new home is founded. In such a case the question would appear to be one of fact, and if the minor, after the ceremony of marriage, continued to reside with his or her parents, there would be no occasion to consider it, inasmuch as there would be only one locality to which the domicil could possibly be attributed. It is apparent that the domicil of an orphan must be decided by that of its legal guardian, and when this test cannot be applied, it becomes a question of the place where the child in fact resides. A doubt has, however, been raised, whether the legal guardian of an infant can change its domicil, with the effect in many cases of bringing it under the influence of a law of succession more favourable to himself. It is quite clear that when that guardian is a surviving mother, or even, it would seem, a step-mother, and there is no suggestion of fraudulent intention, the change can effectively be made.(a) In other cases, however, there is more doubt, and Story suggests that it is extremely difficult to find any reasonable principle by which a guardian, not a parent, can alter by a change of domicil the right of succession to the minor's property. English law is barren of authority on the subject,(b) but the inquiry as to what is sufficient to change the domicil of adults is a more fruitful one, and has given rise to a mass of litigation.

Domicil by
acquisition.

The domicil of origin adheres until a new domicil is acquired,(c) and in the case of an adult this change is effected by a *de facto* removal to a new place of residence, together with an *animus manendi*.(d) As to the *factum*

Abandonment
and transit.

(a) *Pottinger v. Wightman*, 3 Meriv. 67.

(b) Story, § 506, n.; Burge on For. and Col. Law, pt. i. c. 2, pp. 38, 39; Robertson on Succession, p. 196.

(c) *Bell v. Kennedy*, L. R. 1 H. L., Sc. 307; *Udny v. Udny*, *ibid.* 460.

(d) *The Lauderdale Peerage*, 10 App. Cas. 692; *Douglas v. Douglas*, L. R. 12 Eq. 617; *Haldane v. Eckford*, L. R. 8 Eq. 631; *De Bonneval v. De Bonneval*, 1 Curt. 864.

of removal, it is apparently now settled by the case of *Udny v. Udny* (a) that a new domicile is not acquired until the transit is complete, and that when a domicile of choice is abandoned, the domicile of origin revives until a new one is completely fixed. In Lord Hatherley's words in the case cited, a man may not only change his domicile, but also abandon each successive domicile *simpliciter*, so that the original domicile *simpliciter* reverts; and this doctrine was accepted and approved by the Master of the Rolls (Sir G. Jessel) in the later case of *King v. Foxwell*. (b) In the absence of evidence the domicile of origin must of course be presumed to have continued, so that the burden of evidence will be on the party who alleges its abandonment. (c) If the domicile of origin reverts when an acquired domicile is abandoned without a new one being acquired, it would naturally follow that, with regard to the domicile of origin itself, mere abandonment is not sufficient to divert it. In other words, a domicile of origin cannot be abandoned unless and until a new one is acquired. Accordingly it was held by Lord Alvanley, in *Somerville v. Somerville*, (d) whose judgment is cited with approval by Sir C. Cresswell in *Crookenden v. Fuller*, (e) that "the original domicile is to prevail until the party has not only acquired another, but has manifested and carried into execution an intention of abandoning his former domicile and taking another as his sole domicile"—a *dictum* the peculiar wording of which is due to the fact that in *Somerville v. Somerville* the Court was called upon to lay down that for purposes of succession a man can have but one domicile. That mere abandonment was not in any case sufficient to divert domicile had been held by Sir John Leach in *Munro v. Douglas*, (f) and Mr. Westlake, in suggesting the theory that the domicile of origin reverts in

PART I.
PERSONS.
CAP. II.

(a) L. R. 1 H. L., Sc. 460.

(b) L. R. 1 Ch. D. 518.

(c) *Crookenden v. Fuller*, 29 L. J. P. & M. 1; *The Lauderdale Peerage*, 10 App. Cas. 692.

(d) 5 Ven. 786.

(e) 29 L. J. P. & M. 8. See *Munro v. Munro*, 7 Cl. & F. 842; *Collier v. Rivaz*, 2 Curt. 855; *Hodgson v. De Beauchesne*, 12 Moo. P. C. 285.

(f) 5 Madd. 405.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. II.

transitu, adds that he finds no English authority for the proposition, except for the purposes of prize cases in the Admiralty Courts.(a) The *dicta*, however, in *Udny v. Udny* and *King v. Foxwell* just adverted to must now be taken as decisive of the question. Mere abandonment divests all domicils except that of origin. The domicil of origin of necessity adheres until a new one is acquired, as, if this were not so, the man who had left the country of his home for the first time would be left *in itinere* without any domicil at all, a condition of things which cannot possibly exist. But the abandonment of the acquired domicil must of course be complete; and it has been held that a French domicil by acquisition is not so abandoned by mere embarkation on a vessel bound for England, the person in question being compelled by ill-health to re-land, and having never in fact quitted the French harbour.(b) And it would *à fortiori* seem that a mere intention to abandon an acquired domicil, even with the view of reverting to an original domicil, is ineffectual.(c)

*Animus
relinquendi.*

Accompanying the *factum* there must necessarily be an *animus relinquendi*, or the abandonment would be in reality no abandonment at all. It is this *animus* which constitutes the whole difference between mere absence from the domicil and its relinquishment; and while a man may divest himself of an acquired domicil in an hour by crossing the territorial limit of the State with the intention of permanently quitting it, he may, without such intention, wander over the face of the earth for years and preserve his domiciliary *status* unaffected. Subsequent declarations will of course be received as evidence that this *animus relinquendi* was absent when the country of the domicil was quitted, as in the cases of *Jopp v. Wood* (d) and *In re Capdevielle* (e); and it is clear that proof of an *animus manendi* in the country of the new home will

(a) P. I. L. § 39.

(b) *In the Goods of Raffeneil*, 32 L. J. P. & M. 203.(c) *In re Marrett, Chalmers v. Wingfield*, 36 Ch. D. 400.

(d) 34 L. J. Ch. 212.

(e) 33 L. J. Ex. 306.

conclusively establish the intention to abandon the old. If, however, it is shown that the *animus relinquendi* or *non revertendi* never came into existence, as in the case of political refugees and exiles,(a) it is of course unnecessary to inquire further. The *animus relinquendi* is in practice almost identical with the *animus manendi*, when the latter exists; and it is only in cases of mere abandonment, according to the principle stated in *Udny v. Udny*,(b) that the consideration of the former by itself is necessary or practicable.

PART I.
PERSONS.
CAP. II.

Next, with regard to the necessary *animus* for the acquisition of a new domicile, when the transit to its locality is complete, there is in theory no difficulty. There must be, in addition to the *animus non revertendi* to the old home, an *animus manendi* in the new. In the words of Dr. Phillimore, which have been already cited, there must be positive or presumptive proof of an intention to remain in the locality chosen for an unlimited time. It may be mentioned that the oath of a person whose domicile is in question as to his intention to change his domicile is not conclusive, but is evidence for the Court to take into consideration.(c) And in *Manning v. Manning* (d) the affidavit of a husband, who petitioned for a divorce, that he had settled in England with an *animus manendi*, was disbelieved. Whether mere length of residence will in itself amount to such presumptive proof as is required may be doubted,(e) and there must always necessarily be other facts from which such an intention may be implied. It has been held that a Scotchman who resided in England for the last twenty-two years of his life, living in lodgings, hotels, and boarding-houses, had not thereby lost his Scotch nor acquired an English domicile.(f)

Animus manendi.

The "intention" which is here spoken of is necessarily a vague expression, involving elements of law as well as

Animus or intention deduced from acts.

(a) *Collier v. Rivaz*, 2 Curt. 858; *De Bonneval v. De Bonneval*, 1 Curt. 856; *Burton v. Fisher*, 1 Milw. 183.

(b) L. R. 1 H. L., Sc. 452; *ante*, p. 25.

(c) *Wilson v. Wilson*, L. R. 2 P. & D. 435. (d) L. R. 2 P. & D. 223.

(e) *Jopp v. Wood*, 34 L. J. Ch. 212. Cf. *Bradford v. Young*, 29 Ch. D. 617.

(f) *In re Patience*, *Patience v. Main*, 29 Ch. D. 976.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. II.

fact, and much difficulty has been felt in defining it more closely. The ordinary rule that a man must be taken to intend the legal consequences of his act, fails in application when the intention itself forms the principal part of the act in dispute; and it has been argued with some force, that since a change of domicile depends upon intention alone, an expressed intention to retain a domicile of origin must be given full effect, though the intention to establish a permanent home or residence in the new locality be put beyond a doubt.(a) It has been contended, and perhaps was at one time the law of Scotland,(b) that in order to prove a change of domicile, it is necessary to show that the person concerned intended to change his civil *status*, to give up his position as a citizen of one country, and to assume a position as the citizen of another. The English law, however, may now be regarded as definitely settled on this point. The intention required for a change of domicile, as distinguished from the action embodying it, is an intention to settle in a new country as a permanent home; and if this intention exists and is sufficiently carried into effect, certain legal consequences follow from it, whether such consequences were intended or not, and even though the person concerned may have expressed a contrary wish as to the legal result of his acts.(c) In the words of Bacon, V.C., it is only necessary to show that a man has established himself in a country, meaning to reside there all the days of his life,(d) or with the intention of living there permanently.(e) Thus, where a British-born subject resided many years at Hamburg under circumstances which afforded evidence of a domicile there, and then made a will in England, where he was present for a temporary purpose, in which he declared that it was not his intention

(a) See *Attorney-General v. Waldstatt*, 3 H. & C. 374; *Moorhouse v. Lord*, 10 H. L. C. 272, 292; *Douglas v. Douglas*, L. R. 12 Eq. 617.

(b) *Donaldson v. McClure*, 20 C. of Sess. Cas. (2nd Series) 307.

(c) *Douglas v. Douglas*, L. R. 12 Eq. 617, 644; *Haldane v. Eckford*, L. R. 8 Eq. 631.

(d) *Stevenson v. Masson*, L. R. 17 Eq. 78.

(e) *Bradford v. Young*, 29 Ch. D. 617.

to renounce his domicile of origin as an Englishman, it was held that his declaration of intention could not prevail against the foreign domicile in fact.(a) It was said by the Court in that case that such an expression of intention amounted to a desire to have two domicils; or, at any rate, to change his domicile in fact without submitting to the consequences in law. A declaration of intention to retain domicile itself being thus insufficient, it is quite clear that a declared intention to retain the *nationality* of origin will have even less effect.(b) The latter declaration, indeed, seems by itself to be hardly evidence of that intention to keep or transfer the permanent home which the law looks for; while an expressed intention to retain domicile itself is undoubtedly some evidence to show that domicile has been retained, though it will not be allowed to counter-balance actual facts. In some cases(c) it has been held, no doubt, that an original domicile has been retained by the mere expression of an intention to return before death to the residence which has been abandoned; but the distinction to be drawn between the principle of these cases and that which was followed in *Re Stern* appears to be, that while a man is not allowed to contradict the legitimate inference from his conduct by the expression of a bare wish to retain a domicile which he has practically abandoned, yet a *bonâ fide* declaration that he means in fact to return to his original residence, will be accepted by the law as evidence that the abandonment has not been complete.

The intention required for a change of domicile, therefore, is that of settling in a new country as a permanent home;(d) but then comes the material question, what is a permanent home, and how is it to be distinguished from a temporary one? The modern decisions establish that

Distinctive marks of permanent residence or domicile.

(a) *Re Stern*, 28 L. J. Ex. 22; 3 H. & N. 594.

(b) *Brunel v. Brunel*, L. R. 12 Eq. 298.

(c) *Jopp v. Wood*, 34 L. J. Ch. 212; *Re Capdevielle*, 33 L. J. Ex. 306.

(d) *Douglas v. Douglas*, L. R. 12 Eq. 212; *Udny v. Udny*, L. R. 1 H. L., Sc. 441.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. II.

Liability to
interruption.

where a foreign residence has been permanently adopted with a view to the acquisition of a fortune, a change of domicile will not be averted by the mere existence of an ulterior design to return when that object is attained. This is the view taken by Westlake (P. I. Law, § 38), (a) and is in accordance with the later case of *Allardice v. Onslow*; (b) but the contrary was held by Lord Romilly in 1865, (c) though it is to be noted that in the last-mentioned case there was a direct expression of an intention to return to the original place of residence. A like declaration of intention was disregarded in *Doucet v. Geoghegan*, (d) where James, L.J., said that a man who says he will go back when his fortune is made "is like a man who expects to reach the horizon." The prospect of return to their home which is cherished by political refugees is of a more determinate character, and this, so long as the exile is involuntary, (e) will prevent the substitution of a new domicile for that of origin from being complete. (f) The same principle, that an involuntary detention is destitute of the requisite *animus*, is applicable to incarceration in prison. (g) When the residence is liable to be interrupted at any moment by the intervention of another will, the elements of domicile are incomplete; the *animus* being at most conditional. Thus an officer in her Majesty's service, who may at any time be required for foreign service, cannot while no such demand is made upon him acquire a domicile abroad; (h) nor could an officer in the East India Company's employment, who was at all times liable to be recalled to India,

(a) *Bruce v. Bruce*, 2 B. & P. 229, n.

(b) 33 L. J. Ch. 434.

(c) *Jopp v. Wood*, 34 L. J. Ch. 212. As to these cases of Anglo-Indian domicile, see per Lindley, L.J., in *Ex parte Cunningham*, 13 Q. B. D. at p. 425; and also per Malins, V.C., in *Doucet v. Geoghegan*, 9 Ch. D. at pp. 452, 453.

(d) 9 Ch. D. 441. Cf. *In re Bell, Bell v. Kendall*, W. N. 1888, p. 48.

(e) *Collier v. Rivaz*, 2 Curt. 858.

(f) *De Bonneval v. De Bonneval*, 1 Curt. 856.

(g) *Burton v. Fisher*, 1 Milw. 183.

(h) *Hodgson v. De Beauchesne*, 12 Moo. P. C. 285. See per Lindley, L.J., in *Ex parte Cunningham*, 13 Q. B. D. at p. 425, as to the anomalous and exceptional nature of cases involving an Anglo-Indian domicile.

acquire one in England.(a) But the duty of a peer of Great Britain to advise her Majesty whenever she may call for his advice, or to attend the House of Lords whenever his attendance there is required, whether in any sense a legal duty or not, does not incapacitate him from abandoning his English domicile of origin and acquiring a new domicile abroad.(b)

In all cases it must be remembered that the onus of proof is upon the party who alleges a change of domicile; (c) but it has been held that slighter evidence is required of an intention to revert to a domicile of origin, than of an intention to adopt one entirely new.(d)

In certain cases, however, the law fixes the domicile of an individual without reference to intention, or the presence of its usual *indicia*; though it would be perhaps more correct to say that, in certain cases, the law does not allow the presumption of intention, which it raises for itself, to be contradicted. The most common example of this principle is the rule that a woman assumes on her marriage the domicile of her husband.(e) And this is so, even though the marriage be voidable, since "a woman when she marries a man, not only by construction of law, but absolutely as a matter of fact, does acquire the domicile of her husband if she lives with him in the country of the domicile. The petitioner had the intention of taking up her permanent abode with him, and of making his country her permanent home." (f) How far she may afterwards be able to choose a new domicile for herself, and under what circumstances such a choice will be recognised, is not altogether clear.

According to the *dicta* of Lord Cranworth (g) in *Dolphin v. Robins*, founded on the older decision of *Williams v.*

(a) *Attorney General v. Pottinger*, 30 L. J. Ex. 284; *Craigie v. Lewin*, 3 Curt. 435.

(b) *Hamilton v. Dallas*, L. R. 1 Ch. D. 257.

(c) *Bell v. Kennedy*, L. R. 1 H. L., Sc. 307; *The Lauderdale Peerage*, 10 App. Cas. 692. (d) *Lord v. Colvin*, 28 L. J. Ch. 361.

(e) *Bremer v. Freeman*, 10 Moo. P. C. 306.

(f) *Turner v. Thompson*, 13 P. D. 37, 41.

(g) 7 H. L. C. 390.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. II.

Domicil of
married
women—when
distinct.

Dormer,^(a) and adopted with approval by Sir R. Phillimore in the later case of *Le Sueur v. Le Sueur*,^(b) a married woman is undoubtedly rendered capable of acquiring a domicil distinct from her husband's by a judicial separation. In *Dolphin v. Robins*, Lord Cranworth evinced an inclination to go a step further. "I should add," he says, "that there may be exceptional cases, to which even without judicial separation the general rule would not apply, as, for instance, where the husband has abjured the realm, has deserted his wife, and established himself permanently in a foreign country, or has committed felony and been transported. It may be that in these and similar instances the nature of the case may be considered to give rise to necessary exceptions." A similar conclusion is indicated by expressions which fell from Lord Eldon and Lord Redesdale in *Tovey v. Lindsay*,^(c) and was adopted, as far as wilful desertion by the husband is concerned, by Sir R. Phillimore in the case of *Le Sueur v. Le Sueur* ^(d) just cited, where he said: "Upon the whole, I am disposed to assume in favour of the petitioner the correctness of the opinion that desertion on the part of the husband may entitle the wife, without a decree of judicial separation, to choose a new domicil for herself; and in coming to that conclusion I am aware that I am going a step further than judicial decisions have yet gone." The petition in that case was dismissed upon another ground, namely, that though the wife, under such circumstances, might elect a domicil of her own, she could not make her husband amenable to the *lex fori* of her new domicil, and that inasmuch as neither his domicil nor the place where the marriage was contracted was in England, the English Court had no jurisdiction to dissolve the marriage; but the principle was clearly indicated, and may now be regarded as settled. It is hardly necessary to observe, after con-

^(a) 2 Rob. Eccl. 505.^(b) L. R. 1 P. D. 139. In *Re Daly's Settlement*, 25 Beav. 456, Lord Romilly had held that a separation *de facto* for thirty years was not sufficient to confer an independent domicil on a married woman.^(c) 1 Dow, 117, 138, 140.^(d) L. R. 1 P. D. 139.

sidering the cases just cited, that a widow resumes on her husband's death the power of electing and changing her domicile as if she were a *feme sole*.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CHAP. II.

Following the principle which decides the place of a man's domicile by that of his home—for which phrase, indeed, the word may almost be regarded as the legal equivalent—it is established that a foreign domicile is conferred by the acceptance of any office which necessarily requires foreign residence,^(a) even although it may also involve occasional employment in other parts of the world, as in the case of one who enters the military or naval service of a Government. This rule requires some modification when applied to the case of such a sovereign Power as Great Britain, which includes within its jurisdiction several countries, each able to confer an independent domicile of its own. A Scotchman or Irishman entering the British army or navy does not thereby acquire an English domicile,^(b) since the British army and navy are Scotch and Irish as well as English. And this rule applies, whether the domicile at the time of entering the imperial service was original or acquired.^(c) It follows, that there is no presumption that an officer in the English army has an English domicile, as distinguished from a domicile in Scotland, Ireland, or the Channel Islands.^(d) It is hardly necessary to observe, that unless the residence required by the office is of a constant character, it will not be residence at all in the eye of the law, and no change of domicile will be effected by the acceptance of its duties. An apparent exception to the rule itself is the case of consular office, which arises from the general view taken by international law of the relation between a consul and the State which he represents. A British subject who goes abroad as consul for his country does not acquire a foreign domicile

Residence
necessary by
office.

(a) *Munro v. Douglas*, 5 Madd. 379; *Attorney-General v. Pottinger*, 30 L. J. Ex. 284.

(b) *Brown v. Smith*, 21 L. J. Ch. 356; *Dalhousie v. M^r Douall*, 7 Cl. & F. 817.

(c) *In re Macreight, Paxton v. Macreight*, 30 Ch. D. 165, where the domicile was a Jersey domicile.

(d) *Ex parte Cunningham, In re Mitchell*, 13 Q. B. D. 418.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. II.

*Indicia of
domicil.*

by so doing, nor does the acceptance of a British consulate by one already domiciled abroad confer a British domicil upon the holder.(a) On the contrary, a foreigner who comes to England as consul for the country in which he is domiciled retains his own domicil *ex officio*, however long his residence in this country, the rule of international law on this point appearing not to admit of contradiction.(b) The older cases cited by Mr. Westlake on this subject (c) are to the same effect, and the same rule applies *à fortiori* to ambassadors.

In addition to these presumptions of law, which do not admit of contradiction, there are other facts which are accepted as evidence, more or less conclusive, where a difficulty arises in deciding where residence has been fixed. It is a principle of common-sense that the place which a man has selected as the home for his wife and family should be regarded, in the absence of evidence to the contrary, as that in which he himself must be considered to reside.(d) And this, in the case cited, was held to be so, even though the choice of residence was made expressly at the wife's request, and the house taken and furnished at her expense. It is always material, as was said in the Privy Council in a modern case,(e) in determining what is a man's domicil, to consider where his wife and children live and have their permanent place of residence, and where his establishment is kept up. That is the place to which it is to be presumed that the man would go unless incapacitated from doing so by business or public duties. Next to this test or criterion, but subordinate to it,(f) comes the rule which was laid down in *Somerville v. Somerville* by Lord Alvanley.(g) In the case of a nobleman or

(a) *Sharpe v. Crispin*, L. R. 1 P. & M. 611.

(b) *Niboyet v. Niboyet*, L. R. 3 P. D. 52; reversed 4 P. D. 1, but not on this point.

(c) *Maltass v. Maltass*, 1 Rob. Eccl. 79; *Heath v. Samson*, 14 Beav. 441.

(d) *Aitchison v. Dixon*, L. R. 10 Eq. 589.

(e) *Platt v. Attorney-General of New South Wales*, 38 L. T. 74. See to the same effect, *D'Etchegoyen v. D'Etchegoyen*, 13 P. D. 132.

(f) *Forbes v. Forbes*, Kay, 341.

(g) 5 Ves. Jun. 750, 789; and see the cases cited from *Denisart*, at p. 777.

country gentleman, who has two homes in different jurisdictions, as, for example, in the case of a Scotch landowner with a house in Belgravia, who lives half the year in each, the situation of the country house will be preferred to that of the town residence; while, on the other hand, a merchant, whose business lies in the metropolis, shall be considered as having his domicile there, and not in the country. The mere fact that a man marries a native of the country to which he has transferred his residence is *some* evidence that that residence is intended to be permanent, and therefore that a change of domicile has been made.(a) So it has been held evidence of a change of domicile, more or less cogent when combined with other material facts, that a man should set up a permanent commercial business in a place, and so fix his *rerum ac fortunarum summam* there; that he should obtain naturalisation in the new country, or take steps preliminary to doing so; that he should vote at elections there, thus exercising the functions of a resident citizen; that he should accept local office involving the necessity of taking an oath of allegiance to the territorial Sovereign; and that he should buy land in the new locality to which he has transferred himself.(b) The expression of a wish or direction to be buried in either the old or the new country of residence does not seem to be a very important circumstance; (c) and it would certainly appear unreasonable that a man's natural desire that his remains should rest, for example, in a family vault, which perhaps he has never visited in his life, should affect the view taken by the law of his actual domicile or civil *status* whilst living. The facts cited, and all similar ones, will be accepted as indicating that voluntary change of per-

(a) *Drevon v. Drevon*, 34 L. J. Ch. 129, 135; *Gomez v. Eames*, Prob. Div., *Times*, July 9, 10, 1878 (unreported).

(b) *Drevon v. Drevon*, 34 L. J. Ch. 129. For other material facts indicating a change of domicile, see *Whicker v. Hume*, 7 H. L. C. 124. *Doucet v. Geoghegan*, 9 Ch. D. 441, is a case where several of these indications will be found in conflict.

(c) *Platt v. Attorney-General of New South Wales*, 38 L. T. 74; *Douglas v. Douglas*, L. R. 12 Eq. 617.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. II.

manent residence from which the law deduces a change of domicile; but, as has been already said with reference to political exiles, the change of residence must be voluntary. Domicil cannot be founded upon compulsory residence, and there may well be cases in which even a permanent residence in a foreign country, if *necessitated* by the state of the health, will not operate upon the domicile. (a) "It is not because a critical state of health may oblige a man to go, or to remain with the prospect of dying, abroad, that he can be held to have abandoned, either *animo* or *facto*, his domicile of origin." (b) The fact, however, that the *preference* for the foreign residence arose from climatic or valetudinarian considerations will not deprive such permanent foreign residence of its natural effect. In the one case the foreign abode is determined by necessity; in the other by choice. (c)

The question has been raised, at what age a minor can elect to acquire a new domicile, and do so in fact, it being stated that, according to Scotch law, he can do so at fourteen. (d) The point was not decided; but it is submitted as the true conclusion from the case cited, and from general principles, that it is in all cases a question of fact, and that no local law ought to affect the matter. If a youth is old enough to marry and acquire a home of his own, he is old enough to change his domicile; and a conventional law can no more limit his capacity in one case than in the other.

Domicil and
national
character,
approximation
of.

The variety of the incidents from which a change or retention of domicile may be inferred have now perhaps been sufficiently illustrated. The effects which domicile has in determining what law shall be applied to interpret a man's acts, or to the distribution of his property, do not properly come under the object of this chapter, and will be noticed in the ensuing portions of this treatise, as

(a) *Hoskins v. Matthews*, 8 De G. M. & G. 13, 28; *Beattie v. Johnson*, 10 Cl. & F. 139.

(b) *The Lauderdale Peerage*, 10 App. Cas. 692, 740.

(c) *Hoskins v. Matthews*, 8 De G. M. & G. 13, 28, per Turner, L.J.

(d) *Urguhart v. Butterfield*, 37 Ch. D. 357.

occasion arises. It may be observed, before leaving this part of the subject, that there is a growing tendency to regard the question of domicile as of greater importance than that originally attributed to it, in connection with the kindred question of national character. Every act of legislation which renders it easier for a man to divest himself of or assume a particular nationality at pleasure, and which simplifies the formalities of such a process, makes a further step towards the time when no formality whatever will be required, and when the mere voluntary assumption by the individual of a new domicile will be accepted by the Government whose protection he has left, no less than by that to which he has declared his intention of adhering, as equivalent to enrolment among the members of the community of which he has become a member, for all intents and purposes. In the United States, in particular, this view has long been gaining ground,^(a) as would naturally be expected in a country whose population is so constantly being increased by immigration from older nations; but the principle has never received any recognition in English law, although special provision has been made by the convention between her Majesty and the American Government of 1871, and the Naturalisation (Amendment) Act (35 & 36 Vict. c. 39), referred to in the preceding chapter, for the renunciation of British nationality in favour of that of the United States.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. II.

As to domicile for testamentary purposes, or with relation to succession to personal property on intestacy, the law has been considerably modified by 24 & 25 Vict. c. 121, entitled, "An Act to amend the Law in relation to the Wills and Domicil of British subjects dying whilst resident abroad, and of foreign subjects dying whilst resident in her Majesty's dominions." By this Act it is provided that, subject to future conventions to be made with foreign States in relation to its provisions, British subjects dying

Domicil for
testamentary
purposes.

(a) See Wheaton's Int. Law, 6th ed. p. 132; Story's Conflict of Laws, § 49 b; and *cf. ante*, p. 5.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. II.

in a foreign country shall be deemed for all purposes of testate or intestate succession as to movables to retain the domicile they possessed at the time of going to reside in such foreign country, unless they have resided in such foreign country for a year at least, and shall have made a formal and public written declaration of an intention to become domiciled there (s. 1). Similarly foreigners dying in Great Britain shall not be deemed to have acquired a domicile here unless they have resided within her Majesty's dominions for the same period previous to their death, and have made a similar declaration of intention (s. 2). It is to be observed that the Act takes no effect of itself, but simply empowers her Majesty to call its provisions into effect by Order in Council, after a convention has been made with the particular foreign State concerned for that purpose.(a)

Statutory
domicil, ob-
jections to.

It is perhaps doubtful how far it is wise to call into existence a statutory kind of domicile for a particular purpose, or to deny that that is domicile which international law recognises as such. In *Hamilton v. Dallas* (b) it was contended that where a foreign State, such as France, has prescribed certain conditions for the acquisition of domicile within its territories by foreigners, no domicile can be acquired for purposes of succession or testamentary disposition in that country unless those conditions are complied with. The Code Napoléon (Art. 13) gives the right of acquiring a domicile and other civil rights in France only to those foreigners who shall have obtained the authorisation of the Government, and cases (c) were cited from the French reports to show that a domicile *de facto* without such authorisation was not regarded as sufficient to confer any of the ordinary results of a domicile recog-

(a) No convention has been made under this statute, strictly speaking (see Chitty's Statutes, vi. 944); but a convention on analogous principles, with reference to succession and legacy duties, has been made with Switzerland (as to the canton of Vaud). The text will be found in the *London Gazette*, Oct. 25, 1872.

(b) L. R. 1 Ch. D. 257; *Bremer v. Freeman*, 10 Moo. P. C. 306.

(c) *Meliset's Case*, Dalloz, 1869, i. 294; *Sussman's Case*, Dalloz, 1872, ii. 65; *Forgo's Case*, Cour de Cass. May 4, 1875.

nised by the law. It was, however, held by Bacon, V.C., that whether or not the 13th article of the Code was intended to prevent the acquisition of a domicile in France for the purposes of succession, which was not the opinion of the learned judge, "the fact that a foreigner can acquire a domicile *de facto* in France is not for a moment to be called in question. It requires no provision in the Code for that; it is a law paramount to the law of the Code, not provided against nor provided for in the Code, but a natural and national right against which there is no interdiction or prohibition." There can be no doubt that this view is in accordance with the principles of international law. Statutes which attempt to cut down or enlarge the natural capacity of every adult to acquire a domicile by the requisite *animus* and *factum*, do nothing in reality towards taking away or conferring domicile, strictly so called. What they really effect is an alteration in the purposes for which the test of domicile is applied by the Legislature that passes them; and to declare that something less or something more than domicile, as the case may be, shall in the courts of that Legislature decide questions which private international law refers to domicile alone. This is one of the very points of difference between nationality and domicile, to which Lord Westbury calls attention in *Udny v. Udny*.^(a) "The political *status* may depend upon different laws in different countries; whereas the civil *status* is governed universally by one single principle, namely, that of domicile, which is the criterion established by law for the purpose of determining civil *status*. For it is on this basis that the personal rights of the party, that is to say, the law which determines his majority or minority, his marriage, succession, testacy or intestacy, must depend." For *international* purposes, except where regulated by special convention between special States, as provided by 24 & 25 Vict. c. 121, it would follow from this reasoning that municipal legislation purporting to

(a) L. R. 1 H. L., Sc. 441, 457. Cf. *Abd-ul Messih v. Farra*, 13 App. Cas. 431; 57 L. J. P. C. 88.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. II.

limit or to enlarge the natural power of acquiring a domicile within the dominion of such legislation, should be disregarded. The same question that was decided in *Hamilton v. Dallas* (a) had already been determined by Lord Wensleydale in *Bremer v. Freeman*, (b) but in that case the judgment went rather upon the intended scope and proper construction of the French law, and not so distinctly upon the paramount nature of the natural right. In any event, a domicile so conferred by the statutes of one particular State would clearly not be entitled to international recognition, and the inconveniences of a double domicile would at once be introduced. That a man can have but one domicile for the purposes of succession was clearly laid down by Lord Alvanley in *Somerville v. Somerville*, (c) and the principle has received the fullest recognition since that decision. (d)

Mercantile
domicil in
time of war.

The subject of that mercantile domicile or *quasi-domicil*, which is peculiar to a time of war, does not properly come within the scope of the present treatise, but it may be useful to advert to it here. Popularly speaking, it is sometimes said that the character of private property on the high seas in time of war is decided by the mercantile domicile of the owner. It is more correctly stated by Wheaton, that a man's property may acquire a hostile character, independently of his personal residence or nationality. (e) Thus, if a man carries on trade from a hostile port, as a merchant of that port, his property engaged in enterprises which have originated from that port will be regarded as in hostile ownership. (f) A man may thus have mercantile concerns in two countries, and if he acts as a merchant of both, he must be liable, in a

(a) L. R. 1 Ch. D. 257.

(b) 10 Moo. P. C. 306; see also *Collier v. Rivas*, 2 Curt. 855; *Anderson v. Lanenville*, 9 Moo. P. C. 325.

(c) 5 Ves. 756.

(d) *Crookenden v. Fuller*, 29 L. J. P. & M. 1; *Munro v. Munro*, 7 Cl. & F. 842; *Hodgson v. De Beauchesne*, 12 Moo. P. C. 285.

(e) Wheaton (Dana), § 334.

(f) *The Indian Chief*, 3 C. Rob. 12; *The Portland*, 3 C. Rob. 41; *The Susa*, 2 C. Rob. 255.

prize court, to be considered as a subject of both, with regard to the transactions originating respectively in those countries.(a) Nor is it necessary, in order to make a man a merchant of any place, that he should have a counting-house or fixed establishment there; if he is there himself from time to time, and acts as a merchant of the place, it is sufficient;(b) though he may of course avoid this liability upon the outbreak of war by withdrawing from and putting an end to the trade he has hitherto carried on.(c)

The French phrase by which parties to a contract "elect domicile" for the purposes of the contract is convenient, but not strictly accurate. Nothing in the nature of domicile arises from such an election, but the rights of the parties under the contract may be affected, and the jurisdiction of the Courts of the country of the "elected domicile" enlarged. Thus, service on an agent in England appointed for that purpose has been held good, though not in accordance with the English rules, when the French parties had by the contract "elected domicile" in England for such purposes.(d)

SUMMARY.

Domicil is that relation of an individual to a State or country which arises from residence within its limits as p. 22. a member of its community. In ordinary language, that country is said to be the country of his domicile, and he is spoken of as domiciled within it.

Every individual is regarded by the law as domiciled in some one country at every period of his life, and can only p. 23. be domiciled in one country at a time.

A domicile spoken of as the *domicil of origin* attaches to

(a) *The Jonge Klassina*, 5 C. Rob. 297, 302.

(b) *Ibid.* pp. 303, 304.

(c) *The Portland*, 3 C. Rob. 41; *The Indian Chief*, 3 C. Rob. 12.

(d) *Tharsia, &c., Co. v. Société des Métaux*, 5 Times L. R. 618. See the cases cited below (Chap. XL) on the validity of judgments obtained in the courts of "elected domicile."

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. II.

p. 23. every individual at his birth. In the case of posthumous or illegitimate children, the domicil of origin is the domicil of the mother at the time of the birth; in all other cases it is regarded as derived from the father. (The possible cases in which the domicils of the father and mother may be different have been already mentioned.) (a)

pp. 23, 24. The domicil of the child continues through legal infancy to be that of the parent from which it was derived, and follows the changes of the latter. An infant who marries and changes its home must, for this purpose, be regarded as *sui juris*.

The domicil of an orphan becomes and follows that of its legal guardian. It is, however, doubtful whether a guardian by changing his own domicil can so alter that of the minor as to affect the right of succession to the minor's property, at any rate when there is a fraudulent or self-interested intention that it shall be so affected.

p. 24. The domicil of origin adheres until a new domicil is acquired.

pp. 24-36. The domicil of origin is changed, in the case of a person *sui juris*, by a *de facto* removal to a home in a new country, with an *animus non revertendi* and an *animus manendi*; or in the case of a woman, by marrying a man whose domicil is different from her own.

p. 25. A domicil which is not the domicil of origin, but has been acquired, is lost by actual abandonment, *animo non revertendi*. Until a new domicil is acquired, the domicil of origin temporarily reverts.

pp. 29-36. When an acquired domicil has thus been divested, a new domicil is acquired by complete transit to a new country, and the establishment there, *animo manendi*, of a home.

p. 27. The *animus manendi* or *non revertendi* is a question of fact for the Court, as to which neither a declaration *ante litem motam*, nor an affidavit *post litem motam*, by the person whose domicil is in question, is conclusive, though

(a) *Ante*, p. 17.

all such statements are evidence to be taken into consideration.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. II.

The *animus manendi* will in certain cases be a presumption of law which will not admit contradiction.

The domicile of a married woman becomes and follows that of her husband, but in the event of his death, of a divorce, or of a judicial separation, she becomes re-invested with the power of acquiring a new domicile of her own. The same result may probably be regarded as following from certain exceptional circumstances, such as desertion by the husband.

p. 31.
pp. 31, 32.

Domicil, for the purposes of succession to movable property, testate or intestate, is further regulated by 24 & 25 Vict. c. 121. By this Act it is provided that, subject to conventions to be made with foreign States for its reciprocal application, British subjects dying in a foreign country shall be deemed, for all purposes of testate or intestate succession as to movables, to retain the domicile they possessed at the time of going to reside in such foreign country, unless they have resided in such foreign country for a year at least before the death, and shall have made a formal written declaration of an intention to become domiciled there. Similar provisions are made with regard to the subjects of foreign States dying in Great Britain.

pp. 37, 38.

Domicil being a question of fact, it is not competent for individual States to enact restrictions upon, or facilities for, its acquisition; and such enactments should not, in the tribunals of other States, obtain recognition.

pp. 38-40.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. III.

Capacity and
incapacity,
theories as to.

CHAPTER III.

CAPACITY.

THE question of the capacity, or rather the incapacity, of persons, is one of which it is difficult to gather anything like a satisfactory view from the isolated decisions on the subject to be found in English law. All individuals, about whom nothing more is known than that they are members of a particular community, are presumed by the law to be as *capable* of regulating their own actions, entering into contracts, and disposing of their own property, as their neighbours. Infants, however, and persons of unsound mind, are regarded in every civilised country as labouring under a certain *incapacity*, for most of these purposes; and the declarations of this incapacity, which are made by the law properly claiming jurisdiction in the matter, may be regarded as stamping a certain mark upon the person for the information of other tribunals and communities. How far this mark will be regarded by them, or, in other words, how far the declarations of incapacity made by a foreign law are to be recognised as valid and binding, is a branch of international jurisprudence upon which little agreement is to be found. The conflicting opinions of the jurists may be perhaps conveniently regarded under two main heads, directly opposed to each other; the first springing from the theoretical division of all laws into *real* and *personal*.^(a) The writers of this school agree in considering that personal laws, or laws directed *in personam*,

(a) A distinction formulated, probably for the first time, by Bartolus, in the 14th century, who classified statutes as *real* and *personal*, according to the arrangement, obviously often accidental, of the subject and predicate in the enacting sentences.—*Bart. Cod.* l. 1.

impress certain fixed qualities upon the person, which adhere to it wherever it is removed and must be recognised by the tribunals of all jurisdictions alike. This personal law, according to Hertius (*De Coll. Leg.* § 4), is the law of that State to which the person is subject by *domicil*, and extends not only to the acts of the individual, wherever done, but to his dealings with property, real as well as personal, wherever situate. Boullenois, (a) Bouhier, (b) Rodenburg, and P. Voet (c) (the last-named, however, distinguishing between the operation of the principle with regard to *real* and *personal* property) lay down a similar rule. As to the question how far a change from the domicil of origin may alter the qualities which have been once impressed by the proper domiciliary law, the views of the older jurists are so conflicting that there is little object in quoting from them.

The theory exactly opposed to that of which mention has just been made, is that which denies to the laws which regulate the capacity and *status* of persons subject to them any extra-territorial operation whatever. Such laws are, according to this view, the mere eyes by which the Legislature sees the persons who come under its notice, and can only present one kind of image to its perception. This theory has been by no means so generally adopted as the former one, and the younger Voet (d) is perhaps its best known advocate. It is obviously capable of being modified into one more in accordance with the views of English jurisprudence, namely, that the tribunals of one State, when considering acts done within the limits of another by persons there domiciled, will refer to the laws of that other State all questions of the capacity of the persons in relation to those acts, but will not allow the foreign laws in question so to operate as to come into collision with their own regulations for persons properly their subjects.

A departure from both these theories is to be seen in the French law on the subject (*Code Civil*, Art. 3) which

(a) *Princ. Gen.* pp. 4, 5, 6.

(b) *Cout. ch.* 23.

(c) *De Stat.* § 4, ch. 2.

(d) *Ad Pand.* l. iv. 7.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. III.

Incapacity
distinguished
from prohibi-
tion.

provides that all questions of *status* and domicile, in the case of French subjects, even though domiciled abroad, shall be referred to French law as the law of their *nationality*; but the view more commonly adopted on the Continent is that which regards the domiciliary law as the one properly applicable.

The views hitherto taken by English law of the question of capacity are somewhat perplexing, a state of things for which the loose and inaccurate extension of the term beyond its proper meaning is perhaps responsible. It has already been said that the word can mean nothing more in strictness than the normal and ordinary condition of all human beings. To say that a man is of full capacity is to say simply that he is of full age, and is in full possession of his faculties. Superadded to this meaning comes a purely conventional one, whose effect becomes intelligible only by observing its negations. This supplementary meaning of the word signifies that the person, whose capacity is under consideration, is not the subject of any of the prohibitions or deprivations of the laws which actually govern him and his actions. More accurately, that he is not affected by the deprivations and prohibitions of law otherwise and more stringently than the other reasonable adults by whom he is surrounded. Where a deprivation or a prohibition is general in its effect, it imposes no incapacity upon any one. It does, however, occasionally happen that a prohibition, which is in reality universal, is apparently particular; and that a man is prohibited from a complex act which seems at first sight to be one permissible to others. For example, A. wishes to marry B., his deceased wife's sister, but the English law prohibits him from doing so. Inasmuch as C., D., E., and all the rest of the alphabet may marry B., if they and she like, A. may be said, in a certain loose sense of the term, to be incapacitated by English law from that act. Strictly speaking, this is incorrect. Marriage with a deceased wife's sister, the act in A.'s mind, is *universally* prohibited by English law, and neither A. nor anybody else may do it. It is true that any other man not similarly related to

her may marry B., but if any other man married her, he would not be doing that prohibited act which A. desires to do. A.'s capacity, therefore, is not in any way affected by the prohibition. It will be seen, however, that the distinction between a prohibition and an incapacity is sometimes sufficiently fine to involve a certain amount of confusion.

PART I.
PERSONS.
CAP. III.

On the question of *capacity* in the strict sense of the term, *i.e.*, the capacity of a sane adult to do a lawful act, the English authorities are scanty, and even discordant. According to Burge,^(a) and Story,^(b) the *law of the place where an act is done, or a contract entered into*, is the proper law to decide all questions of minority or majority, competency or incompetency, and in fact all matters of *status* and capacity whatever. On the question of the full age which enables a man to bind himself by a contract, Lord Eldon held the same at Nisi Prius.^(c) In *Ruding v. Smith*,^(d) which was eventually decided upon a different principle, the opposite view was strongly pressed upon Lord Stowell, who expressly guarded himself against being supposed to accept it. "I do not mean to say," he observes in his judgment, "that Huber is correct in laying down as universally true, that '*personales qualitates, alieni in certo loco jure impressas, ubique circumferri, et personam comitari*,' that a man, being of age in his own country, is of age in every other country, be the law of majority in that country what it may." And in *Sinonin v. Maillac*,^(e) Sir Cresswell Cresswell says clearly, "In general the personal competency or incompetency of individuals to contract has been held to depend upon the law of the place where the contract was made."

Capacity
tested by the
lex loci actus.

These authorities are at any rate sufficiently cogent to render rather startling a *dictum* of the Court of Appeal, in the modern case of *Sottomayor v. De Barros*,^(f) where it was said to be "a well-recognised principle of law," that the question of personal capacity to enter into any contract was to be decided by the law of domicil. The ques-

Capacity and
the *lex domicilii*.

(a) Burge, Col. Law, i. c. 4, p. 132.

(b) Story, Conf. of Laws, § 103.

(c) *Male v. Roberts*, 3 Esp. 163.

(d) 2 Hagg. Cons. 371, 389.

(e) 2 Sw. & Tr. 67 (1860).

(f) 37 L. T. 415.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. III.

tion in that case was simply of the validity of a marriage entered into in England between two Portuguese first-cousins, prohibited, like all other first-cousins, from intermarrying by the law of Portugal. According to the analysis of the word "capacity," which has been attempted above, this was not a question of capacity at all, but of the legality of an act; and it will be shown, when discussing the subject of contract, (a) that the so-called marriage contract, if a contract at all in the eye of the law, is a contract of a very different nature from that between vendor and purchaser, master and servant. On the question, therefore, of the legality of a marriage prohibited by a certain law, a *dictum* as to the personal capacity of a man to contract was doubly superfluous, especially as it will be seen below (b) that the decision could in fact have been supported on a sound foundation of less questionable material.

The question of capacity, however, has been very lately considered by the House of Lords in a Scotch appeal, not in reference to the contract of marriage, but to a marriage contract or settlement. (c) The question in *Cooper v. Cooper* was as to the validity of a pre-nuptial contract entered into by a female minor in Ireland, which was the country of her domicil, in contemplation of her marriage with a domiciled Scotchman. It was attempted to set up the Scotch law, as the law of the place was intended to be performed, on the question of her capacity to make a valid contract. It need hardly be said that the Irish law, which was the *lex domicilii* and also the *lex loci actus*, was preferred. There are no doubt expressions in the judgment of Lord Halsbury, C., showing a distinct tendency to lean on the *lex domicilii*, whether it was the *lex loci actus* or not; but both Lord Watson and Lord Macnaghten expressly guard themselves against being taken to have decided between the two. (d) It is moreover

(a) *Infra*, Chap. VIII. (ii.) (a).(b) *Infra*, Chap. VIII.(c) *Cooper v. Cooper*, 13 App. Cas. 88.(d) Lord Watson says (p. 105): "Whether the capacity of a minor to bind himself by personal contract ought to be determined by the law of his domicil, or by the *lex loci contractus*, has been a fertile subject of controversy. In the

noticeable that the passage from Story on which Lord Halsbury relied (§ 64) relates only to cases where the act is done in the country of the domicile, *i.e.*, in cases where the conflict between the *lex domicilii* and the *lex loci* does not arise. The subsequent passages of the same author, in which are summarised "some of those rules which seem best established in the jurisprudence of England and America," show clearly that Story, in cases where the conflict did arise, preferred the *lex loci*.(a) And though, so far as the ultimate appellate tribunal is concerned, the conflict between the two laws was thus left open, yet Courts of first instance must necessarily be guided by the strong language used in *Sottomayor v. De Barros*, which has already been referred to. It was on this ground, without expressing a personal opinion, that Stirling, J., recently pronounced a decision in favour of the *lex domicilii*,(b) after finding the facts in such a way as to raise the precise point. But, like *Cooper v. Cooper*, this was another case, not of the contract of marriage, but of a matrimonial contract. It may be that there is some affinity between these two kinds of contract (c) which renders the doctrine of *Sottomayor v. De Barros* peculiarly applicable to the latter case; and that this was in the mind of Lord Macnaghten when he said that possibly all cases were not to be governed by the same rule.(d) However this may be ultimately decided, it may be safer for the present to regard the English law, for Courts of

present case it is unnecessary to decide the point." Lord Macnaghten says (p. 108), after stating the same question: "Perhaps in this country the question is not finally settled, though the preponderance of opinion here as well as abroad seems to be in favour of the law of the domicile. It may be that all cases are not to be governed by one and the same rule."

(a) Story, Conf. § 101: "*Acts in the Country of the Domicil*.—First, the capacity, state, and condition of persons according to the law of their domicile will generally be regarded as to acts done . . . in the place of their domicile. . . ." *Ibid.* § 102: "*Acts in other Countries*.—Secondly, as to acts done, and rights acquired, and contracts made in other countries, touching property therein, the law of the country where the acts are done, the rights are acquired, or the contracts are made, will generally govern in respect to the capacity, state, and condition of persons."

(b) *In re Cooke's Trusts*, 56 L. J. Ch. 637.

(c) *Cf. infra*, Chap. VIII.

(d) *In Cooper v. Cooper*, 13 App. Cas. at p. 108.

D

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. III.

Capacity of
married
woman to
contract.

first instance, as being that the capacity of the person is in all cases referred to the *lex domicilii*; remembering that, with regard to ordinary mercantile contracts, the ruling of Lord Eldon in *Male v. Roberts* (*suprà*) has never been overruled.

The capacity of a married woman to contract in her own name depends of course upon the law which governs the relation created by the marriage, *i.e.*, the law of the matrimonial domicil. The decision in *Guepratte v. Young*,^(a) which appears at first sight from the head-note to be an authority for referring capacity to contract to the law of the domicil, is not so in reality. In that case not only was the locality where the marriage was celebrated, and where the husband had his domicil, French; but the husband and wife had before marriage, by the nuptial contract itself, adopted the provisions of the Code Civil as the basis of their matrimonial rights (*pour base de leur association conjugale*), with elaborate provisions as to the allotment of the dotal property. The question was not, therefore, whether Madame Guepratte had *capacity* to contract in England, in the proper sense of the word, but whether the nuptial contract, which defined the effect to be given to the marriage upon the property of the contracting parties, allowed or authorised her to do so. Marriage itself is not a contract in the ordinary sense of the term, but there is in every marriage such an implied contract, providing for the future rights of the parties in each other's goods. Here the ordinary implied contract was formulated in writing, and expressly adopted the Code Civil as its controlling law. The law of France was therefore the proper one to determine, not the *capacity* of the wife to contract in England, but her *right* to contract at all.

Capacity apart
from acts or
contracts.

Next, with regard to questions of pure capacity or incapacity, where there is no act or contract to the law of the place of which the matter can be referred, it appears clear that the law of the domicil of the person should

(a) 4 De G. & S. 217.

prevail. In such a case there is no law to compete with it but the law of the *forum*, which cannot justly claim to decide anything beyond matters of procedure and remedy. Accordingly, in the case of *Re Hellmann's Will*,^(a) where a testator, domiciled in England, had devised legacies to children domiciled and resident in Hamburg, the Master of the Rolls held, on the application of the executors, that the age at which the children were to be considered as having attained their majority was to be decided by the law of Hamburg, but refused to recognise the authority which that law gives to the father to receive such legacies as guardian for his infant children. The domicile of the testator being English, and the funds being also in England, the Court was of course justified, from one point of view, in refusing to pay the money over except in the manner contemplated by English law, which governed the will. Nevertheless, it appears at first sight a little inconsistent to have accepted the limit at which natural incapacity ceased as determined by the law of the domicile of the legatees, but to have refused to recognise the powers of guardianship conferred by the same law on the father as a modification of the incapacity which it prolonged. It is by no means clear that the decision would be followed on this point at the present day; and it is certainly at variance with the cases as to foreign *curators* of lunatics, which are cited *infra*. The decision in *Re Hellmann's Will*, so far as the *status* of infancy is concerned, is quite in accordance with the leading case of *Dogliani v. Crispin*.^(b) There, the decision of a Portuguese Court that an Englishman domiciled in Portugal was a *pion*, or plebeian, and not of noble rank, and that his illegitimate son was therefore entitled by Portuguese law to succeed to his personal property *ab intestato*, was accepted and acted upon by the judge of the English Court of Probate, whose decision was confirmed by the House of Lords. It is to be observed, however, that in that case the Portuguese law, being the law of the

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. III.

Capacity for
purposes of
succession.

(a) L. R. 2 Eq. 363.

(b) L. R. 1 H. L. 301.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. III.

Representatives of incapacitated persons.

intestate's domicile, was strictly entitled to regulate all the questions connected with the succession to his movable property, the *quasi-capacity* or *status* of the intestate being only one of them. On the mere question of capacity or incapacity, unconnected with any act or contract done in England, some additional authority in favour of accepting the decision of the law of the domicile may be gathered from the judgment of Lord Campbell in *Stuart v. Bute*,^(a) speaking with reference to the Scotch law of majority.

Closely connected with the question of the capacity of the person comes that of the powers and rights of those who are appointed by his domiciliary law as the representatives and guardians of his interests. The *status* of guardian not being a *status* recognised by the law of this country, unless constituted here, it is not a matter of course to appoint a foreign guardian to be English guardian, but that is only a matter to be taken into consideration.^(b) This may be regarded as a natural consequence of the proposition that the *lex loci* prevails as to questions of capacity when any act done beyond the jurisdiction of the domiciliary law is in question, since the persons claiming those rights and powers before an English Court can only do so with the view of exercising them in England. Accordingly, it was decided in *Johnstone v. Beattie* ^(c) that foreign tutors and curators have no right or authority in this country, and that the Court of Chancery has jurisdiction to appoint an English guardian of an infant whose presence in England was transient only, and whose domicile and real property were Scotch. Lord Cottenham, in his judgment in that case, called attention to the fact that the Court of Chancery, if it recognised foreign tutors as guardians in England, might in effect have to administer foreign laws (p. 113), and denied that any argument in favour of such a practice was to be drawn from the fact of

Recognition of foreign guardians or curators.

(a) 9 H. L. C. 467; see also per Lord Westbury in *Udny v. Udny*, L. R. 1 H. L., Sc. 457.

(b) Per Lord Campbell in *Stuart v. Bute*, 9 H. L. C. 440, 464; citing *Johnstone v. Beattie*, *infra*.

(c) 10 Cl. & F. 42.

the *patria potestas* being recognised in the case of foreign children by the English Courts.

PART I.
PERSONS.

—
CAP. III.

“This illustration” (he continues) “proves directly the reverse; for although it is true that the parental authority over such a child is recognised, the authority so recognised is only that which exists by the law of England. If, by the law of the country to which the parties belonged, (a) the authority of the father was much more extensive and arbitrary than it is in this country, is it to be supposed that the father would be permitted here to transgress the power which the law of this country allows? If not, then the law of this country regulates the authority of the parent of a foreign child *living* (b) in England, by the laws of England, and not by the laws of the country to which the child belongs.”

How much the judgment of the House of Lords in *Johnstone v. Beattie* must be taken to have decided, is well explained by Lord Cranworth in the case of *Stuart v. Bute* (c): “Perhaps it might have been a decision more consonant to the principles of general law to have held in *Johnstone v. Beattie* that every country would recognise the *status* of guardian in the same way as it undoubtedly would the *status* of parent, or of husband and wife. (d) But . . . all that was decided there was, that the *status* of guardian not being recognised by the law of this country unless constituted in this country, it was not a matter of course to appoint a foreign guardian to be English guardian, but that that was only a matter to be taken into consideration. That was all that was decided in that case.” The principle, however, that the foreign guardian cannot *claim* recognition, appears to be well established. Nevertheless, where there is a duly constituted foreign guardian already appointed, the Court will reserve to him the exclusive custody and control of the infant, and even allow him, on a proper application, to remove it from

(a) *Semble*, by domicile.

(b) The facts of the particular case show that this word was not here used as equivalent to *domiciled*.

(c) 9 H. L. C. 440.

(d) See *infra*, Chap. IV.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. III.

the jurisdiction, though the order for the appointment of an English guardian will not be discharged.(a) But if the infant be a British subject, it seems that an order will not be made to remove it from the jurisdiction against its will.(b) Whether personal property, *e.g.*, a legacy, will be ordered to be paid to the foreign guardian of an infant seems on the cases a little doubtful,(c) but it would appear clear on principle that this question should depend upon the law of the infant's domicile.

Jurisdiction
over infants—
present within
the jurisdic-
tion.

The jurisdiction of the Chancery Division of the High Court over infants depends upon their becoming "wards of Court." This is effected either by an order made on petition for the appointment of a guardian, or by an action being properly commenced in an infant's name with respect either to his person or his property.(d) And there seems no doubt that the Court will assume this jurisdiction in all cases where the infant is actually, though transiently, present within the jurisdiction, though the mere fact that the infant is interested in property within the jurisdiction is insufficient, if the infant be alien or non-resident.(e)

Nationality—
effect of.

Apart from presence or domicile, it is established law, and has been laid down by the Court of Appeal recently, that the English Court has jurisdiction to appoint guardians of any infant who is a British subject, wherever that infant may be residing, and whoever may have the custody of that infant abroad.(f) In the judgment cited, the above proposition is qualified by the words "in a proper case," but this can only mean that the jurisdiction, which exists in all cases, is to be exercised with propriety

(a) *Nugent v. Vetsera*, 2 Eq. 704.

(b) *Dawson v. Jay*, 3 De G. M. & G. 564; explained 9 H. L. C. 467.

(c) *Re Crichton's Trusts*, 24 L. T. Rep. 267; *Re Browne*, 12 L. T. Rep. 488; *Ferguson's Trusts*, 22 W. R. 762; *Re Hellmann*, 2 Eq. 363.

(d) *Stuart v. Bute*, 9 H. L. C. 440; *Gynn v. Gilbard*, 1 Dr. & Sm. 356. Even when no order is made on the application for a guardian, it seems that the infant may be constituted a ward of Court by arrangement: *De Pereda v. Mancha*, 19 Ch. D. 451.

(e) *Brown v. Collins*, 25 Ch. D. 56. Cf. *De Pereda v. Mancha*, *supra*.

(f) *In re Willoughby*, 30 Ch. D. 324, 332; *Hope v. Hope*, 4 De G. M. & G. 328, 345.

and discretion. But where the evidence as to the nationality of children born and living in France was conflicting, the Court of Appeal refused to interfere with a guardian already appointed by the French law,^(a) on the ground that, whatever the effect of the certificate of naturalisation in dispute, it was not desirable under the circumstances to appoint a guardian in England. And in a recent case, where the infant was living with its mother (one of its guardians by the father's will) in Jersey, the Court in England made an order directing in what religious faith it ought to be educated. The nationality of the infant, who was made a ward of Court as being interested in English realty, was not expressly referred to, but must have been the foundation of the jurisdiction.^(b)

When an appointment of guardian is made in the case of an infant resident abroad, on the ground of nationality, it is usual for the Court to join with persons resident out of the jurisdiction some one within it, in order that there may be some one answerable to the Court.^(c) But there are cases in which guardians appointed in Ireland and there resident have been appointed guardians here.^(d)

The jurisdiction in lunacy is independent of the questions of domicile or nationality, and arises from the mere presence or temporary residence within the dominions of the Crown of the person whose lunacy is asserted. Thus, a commission of lunacy may issue against an alien, though both the domicile of the person and the transient nature of his presence here may be material to the question of discretion.^(e) And where a lunatic had been taken out of the country before the commission issued, an order was made that she should be brought back to England.^(f) A person found lunatic by a competent jurisdiction abroad

Lunatics—
jurisdiction
over persons
in England,

(a) *In re Bourgeoise*, 41 Ch. D. 310.

(b) *In re Montagu, Montagu v. Festing*, 28 Ch. D. 82. Cf. *Brown v. Collins*, 25 Ch. 1. 56.

(c) *Logan v. Fairlie*, Jac. 193; *Lockwood v. Fenton*, 1 Sm. & G. 73.

(d) *Daniels v. Newton*, 8 B. & W. 485; *Re Levinge*, 6 Beav. 392, n. See *Johnstone v. Beattie*, 10 Cl. & F. 42.

(e) *Re Bariatinski*, 1 Ph. 374; 13 L. J. Ch. 69.

(f) *Re Wykeham*, T. & R. 537.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. III.

or having
property in
England in
need of pro-
tection.

Time inquired
into.

Foreign de-
claration of
lunacy—how
far recognised.

may be considered for some purposes a lunatic here, (a) but it would appear that a commission ought to issue here against a person so found, if he come within the jurisdiction. (b)

Commissions of lunacy are also ordered, and inquiries held, in cases where the lunatic is not resident or present in England, but where there is property in England which requires the protection of the Court. (c)

Under the Lunacy Regulation Act, 1853 (16 & 17 Vict. c. 70), s. 47, inquiries in lunacy are confined to the question whether the alleged lunatic is of unsound mind at the time of the inquiry, unless the Lord Chancellor specify a previous time to which the inquiry is to relate. And by the Lunacy Regulation Act, 1862 (25 & 26 Vict. c. 86), s. 3, no evidence of anything done or said by the person at any time more than two years before the date of the inquiry shall be receivable in evidence, unless the judge or master shall otherwise direct. It was held, in a case where an inquiry had been directed in England, and proceedings were also pending in Portugal (where the alleged lunatic was domiciled, though residing in England), that there was power, notwithstanding these statutes, to direct an inquiry from what time the lunatic had been of unsound mind, rogatory letters from the Court in Portugal having been received asking for such an inquiry. In the particular case, though the jurisdiction was asserted, the Lords Justices refused to extend the scope of the inquiry in the manner asked for, on the ground that, according to the English practice, third persons whose interests might be involved in that question had no means of effectually defending their interests upon such an inquiry. (d)

It has been said that to some extent a person found lunatic by a competent jurisdiction abroad may be con-

(a) *Ex parte Gillam*, 2 Ves. Jun. 588. Cf. *Re Talbot*, 20 Ch. D. 269.

(b) *Re Houston*, 1 Russ. 312.

(c) *Ex parte Southcote*, 2 Ves. Sen. 401; *Re Scott*, 22 W. R. 748. For service in a case where the alleged lunatic's presence was dispensed with, see *Re Laurence*, 46 L. T. Rep. 668.

(d) *In re Sottomaior*, L. R. 9 Ch. 677.

sidered lunatic here. But it was held that such a person, found lunatic at Hamburg by a proceeding in the nature of a commission of lunacy, was not within the Act 36 Geo. III. c. 99, s. 3 (re-enacted 6 Geo. IV. c. 74), for facilitating transfers of stock standing in the names of lunatic or absentee trustee.(a)

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. III.

But, speaking generally, the property of a person declared lunatic by a foreign jurisdiction will be dealt with by the Lord Chancellor in conformity with the laws of the country where the lunacy has been declared.(b) (It is probable that at the present day this should be modified by confining it to cases where the lunatic is domiciled, and not merely transiently present, in the country where he has been so found.) Thus, an order has been made, on the application of the curator of a lunatic resident in Holland, for the transfer to him of the *corpus* of funds in England to which the lunatic was entitled.(c) But the Court will exercise a discretion, and in a proper case order only the dividends of the fund to be paid to the foreign curator, retaining its control over the *corpus*.(d) And when the fund represents real estate, and has not lost the character of realty, the dividends only were ordered to be paid to the foreign curator.(e) When the person was detained in a lunatic asylum in New South Wales, but not found a lunatic on inquisition, and it appeared that, by the law of that colony, a Master in Lunacy there had a general power of managing the estate of such persons, though it was not vested in him, an order was made for the payment to the master of income, but not of accumulations.(f) The principle on which the Court acted was, that it would pay all that was reasonably required for the maintenance of the person, but not more.

Property of
foreign
lunatic.

(a) *Sylva v. Da Costa*, 8 Ves. 316. Cf. *Ex parte Lewis*, 1 Ves. 298.

(b) *Newton v. Manning*, 1 Macn. & G. 362.

(c) *Re Elias*, 3 Macn. & G. 234; *Hissing v. Sutherland*, 25 L. J. Ch. 687.

(d) *Re Garnier*, 13 Eq. 532; 41 L. J. Ch. 419. Cf. *Volans v. Carr*, 3 De G. & Sm. 242; *Re Albo*, 7 L. T. Rep. 778.

(e) *Grimwood v. Bartels*, 46 L. J. Ch. 788.

(f) *Re Barlow's Will*, 36 Ch. D. 287.

PART I.
PERSONS.

SUMMARY.

CAP. III.

1P. 47-49.

With regard to acts and contracts done or entered into in the country of the domicil, not relating to immovables, capacity is determined by the *lex domicilii*, and not by the *lex loci solutionis* or any other law.

pp. 47-50.

With regard to acts and contracts in a place other than the country of the domicil, an English Court, at any rate a Court of first instance, will probably prefer the *lex domicilii* to the *lex loci* in all cases. In a purely mercantile contract the question has not arisen in modern times.

pp. 50, 51.

Where there is no act or contract in any particular place to invite the competition of a *lex loci*, but the question is one of the mere *fact* of capacity, the decision of the law of the domicil will be accepted in preference to that of the *lex fori*; e.g., for the purposes of succession.

pp. 52-54.

But even though a personal incapacity, as defined by the foreign law of the domicil, be recognised by English law, the *status*, rights, and powers of the persons appointed by that foreign law to supplement that incapacity as guardians, tutors, curators, or committees, cannot claim or expect as a right a similar recognition. No such rights or powers extend beyond the jurisdiction of the law which created them.

pp. 53, 54.

The creation of such rights and powers by a foreign law is nevertheless a fact to be taken into consideration by an English Court, which will protect or even be guided by those rights and powers where it may seem expedient.

pp. 54, 55.

The English Court claims jurisdiction to appoint guardians over all infants who are British subjects, wherever residing, and whoever may have the custody of the infants abroad, as well as of infants transiently present in England, whatever their domicil and nationality.

pp. 55, 56.

The English Court claims jurisdiction in lunacy over all persons present in England, and in respect of persons absent from England, but having property here in need of protection.

Where a person has been declared lunatic by a Court of competent jurisdiction abroad, the Court in England will administer the property of the lunatic in accordance with that law, at any rate where it is his *lex domicilii*. The title of a foreign curator to his property under such circumstances will be recognised, subject to the discretion of the Court.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. III.

p. 57.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

CHAPTER IV.

LEGITIMACY AND MARRIAGE.

Succession to
real or immo-
vable estate.

CLOSELY connected with what has been called capacity is the subject of legitimacy, which generally becomes important in connection with the right of inheritance, and on this question the law of England is peculiar. So far as succession to real estate or immovables is concerned, it was decided in *Doe d. Birtchistle v. Vardill*,^(a) that the requisitions of both the *lex situs* and the *lex domicilii* must be complied with; in other words, that a man to succeed to English land must be legitimate not only by English law, but also by his *personal* law, or the law of his domicile. According to Lord Cranworth, however, in *Shaw v. Gould*,^(b) the judges in *Doe v. Vardill* inclined to the opinion that for purposes other than succession to real estate, as controlled by the Statute of Merton (20 Hen. III. c. 9), the law of domicile would decide the question of *status* involved. That this was the Scotch law had been already decided by the House of Lords in *Dalhousie v. M'Douall* ^(c) and *Munro v. Munro*,^(d) where it was held that the child of a domiciled Scotchman, born in England before the marriage of his parents, was legitimated by the subsequent marriage of his parents in England, so as to succeed to realty situate in Scotland. It was expressly said in the judgment in these cases (which were argued together) that neither the law of the place of the birth, nor of that of the subsequent marriage, had any bearing

(a) 7 Cl. & F. 895; and as to succession under 3 & 4 Will. IV. c. 106, see *In re Don's Estate*, 27 L. J. Ch. 99.

(b) L. R. 3 H. L. p. 70; 37 L. J. Ch. 433.

(c) 7 Cl. & F. 817.

(d) 7 Cl. & F. 842.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

upon the question, which was decided by the fact that the domicile of the father had been Scotch throughout. In the words of Lord Cottenham, "the question in such cases must be, Can the legitimation of the children be effected in the country in which the father is domiciled at their birth? for their legitimacy must be decided by the law of that country once for all." In *Shedden v. Patrick* (a) the question was whether the illegitimate child, born in America, of a domiciled Scotchman who afterwards married the mother, could inherit Scotch land, and it was decided that he could not, as he was an alien by birth, and not a natural-born British subject entitled to take British land under 4 Geo. II. c. 21, (b) which is not satisfied unless a child is legitimate from his birth. Story (Conflict of Laws, § 87 a) cites this case as an authority for the proposition that a person illegitimate by the law of his domicile of birth will be held illegitimate in England. By the law of his domicile of birth Story obviously means "the law of the *place* of his birth," ignoring the principle which would attribute to the child in that case the Scotch domicile of his father, and it is clear that for such an assertion of law there is no warranty in the decision adverted to. Lord Campbell expressly says in his judgment, (c) that the question is not whether the child was made legitimate *per subsequens matrimonium*, but whether he was made a natural-born subject of the British Crown, so as to take British land under 4 Geo. II. c. 21. In both of the other Scotch cases cited by Story, (d) the domicile of the father of the child whose legitimacy was in question, as well as the place of birth, was English; and they are not therefore authorities for the proposition that the legitimacy or illegitimacy of a child depends in any sense upon the law of the place of his birth, except in cases where that is also his domicile. It has been already pointed out that the domicile will be

(a) 1 Macq. 535; see 4 Wils. & S. (Sc.) App. 5, at p. 94.

(b) See *supra*, p. 3.

(c) 1 Macq. at p. 611.

(d) *Munro v. Saunders*, 6 Bligh, 468; and *The Strathmore Peerage Case*, 4 Wils. & S. (Sc.) p. 89.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

determined by the place of birth in some rare cases; but it often, of course, happens that the child inherits the domicile of that place from its father, or if illegitimate and unacknowledged, from its mother.

Succession to
movables.

So far, however, as the right of succession to movables is concerned, it is now established that the *lex domicilii* is entitled to prevail on the question of the legitimacy of the

Legitimation
per subsequens
matrimonium.

successor. In cases of legitimation *per subsequens matrimonium*, the effect of a change in the domicile of the father between the dates of the birth of the child and the subsequent marriage has been recently considered in the Court of Appeal.^(a) In that case it was distinctly held that the law of the father's domicile at both these dates must admit of legitimation, in order to confer the *status* of legitimacy. "The domicile at birth must give a capacity to the child of being made legitimate; but then the domicile at the time of the marriage, which gives the *status*, must be domicile in a country which attributes to marriage that effect." ^(b) This carries the exigency of English law a step further than it proceeded in *Re Wright's Trusts*,^(c) where it was held by Wood, V.C., that the domicile at the time of the birth must prevail—in other words, that an illegitimate child, not receiving from the law of its father's domicile at its birth the capacity for subsequent legitimisation, cannot be legitimised by the subsequent marriage of its parents after a change of domicile to a more indulgent law. The effect of *In re Grove* is, that the *lex domicilii* must be indulgent at both the critical dates. Bastardy by the *lex domicilii* at birth is indelible; and the sanction of the *lex domicilii* at the time of marriage is essential.

The case just cited ^(d) defined clearly for the first time the conditions under which legitimation *per subsequens matrimonium*, according to the law of the domicile, would be recognised by English law; but it had been decided

(a) *In re Grove, Vaucher v. Treasury*, 40 Ch. D. p. 216.

(b) Per Cotton, L.J., 40 Ch. D. at p. 233, explaining his own judgment in *In re Goodman's Trusts*, 17 Ch. D. 266.

(c) 2 K. & J. 595; 25 L. J. Ch. 621.

(d) *In re Grove, supra*.

before that case, after some variance of judicial opinion, that, for the purposes of succession to movable estate, legitimacy by the *lex domicilii*, when such recognition was given to it, was all that would be required. In *Wright's Trusts* (*suprà*) it was held that legitimacy by the *lex domicilii* was not established, for the reason given above; but had it not been assumed that such legitimacy, if established, would be sufficient for the purpose of succession to movable estate, the inquiry into the existence or non-existence of such legitimacy would have been meaningless. It is therefore somewhat remarkable to find the same judge (Wood, V.C.) subsequently deciding in *Boyes v. Bedale* (*a*) that legitimacy by the law of the domicil, in the completest sense, was insufficient to entitle the claimant to succeed to movables under the word "children" in an English will. The decision was put mainly upon the doctrine that words in an English will must be construed by English law; and loses sight of the principle that English law adopts the *lex domicilii* in considering questions of personal *status*. Moreover, the learned judge in the same case expressed an opinion that the language of the Statute of Distributions, in a case of intestacy, would be dealt with in the same way. This *dictum* has, however, been expressly overruled in the more recent cases of *In re Goodman's Trusts*, (*b*) *Andros v. Andros*, (*c*) and *In re Grove* (*suprà*) (*d*); and as it was said in the Court of Appeal, in the first of these cases, that the decision in *Boyes v. Bedale* was "contrary to principle and erroneous," (*e*) the case can now only be cited as a landmark. The law on the point cannot be better stated than in the language of James, L.J. (*f*): "The question is, What is the rule which the English law adopts and applies to a non-English child? This is a question of international comity and international law. According to that law as recognised, and that comity as practised, in all other civilised communities, the

(a) 1 H. & M. 798.
 (b) 17 Ch. D. 266.
 (c) 24 Ch. D. 637.

(d) 40 Ch. D. 216.
 (e) 17 Ch. D. at p. 296.
 (f) 17 Ch. D. at pp. 296-298.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

status of a person, his legitimacy or illegitimacy, is to be determined everywhere by the law of the country of his origin—the law under which he was born.(a) It appears to me that it would require a great force of argument derived from legal principles, or great weight of authority clear and distinct, to justify us in holding that our country stands in this respect aloof from the rest of the civilised world. . . . The Statute of Distributions is not a statute for Englishmen only, but for all persons, whether English or not, dying intestate and domiciled in England, and not for any Englishman dying abroad. . . . And as the law applies universally to persons of all countries, races, and religions whatsoever, the proper law to be applied in determining kindred is the universal law, the international law, adopted by the comity of States. The child of a man would be his child so ascertained and so determined."

It will be seen that the decision in *Goodman's Trusts*, from which the above quotation is taken, was on the Statute of Distributions. But it is obvious that the principle of the judgment is equally applicable to the case of a will, which was the precise point in *Boyes v. Bedale* (*suprà*). On the next occasion when the construction of an English will came before the Court, Kay, J., followed the decision in *Goodman's Trusts* in preference to *Boyes v. Bedale*, and laid down the English law to be "that a bequest of personalty in an English will to the children of a foreigner means to his legitimate children; and that by international law, as recognised in this country, those children are legitimate whose legitimacy is established by the law of the father's domicil."(b) It has been already shown that this means the father's domicil both at the date of the birth and of the marriage through which legitimisation is claimed.(c)

"Child," therefore, means child by the *lex domicilii*, in

(a) That is, as is obvious from the context, not the law of the *place* of birth, but the law of the domicil of origin.

(b) *Andros v. Andros*, 24 Ch. D. 637.

(c) *In re Grove, Vaucher v. Treasury*, 40 Ch. D. 216; *ante*, p. 62.

the sense laid down by the judgments in the case of *In re Grove* (*suprà*); and all other designations of kinship (such as grandson, nephew, and the like) are no doubt to be interpreted in the same way. The editor of the last edition of *Story*,^(a) obviously disapproving of the decision in *Re Goodman's Trusts* (*suprà*), objects that "it seems to follow that the offspring of a connection that would not be treated as a marriage—for example, a polygamous marriage—would also be entitled as children, and that adopted children would have the same right." Adoption is not a *status*, nor does the idea of legitimacy enter into the conception, but, so far as the offspring of a polygamous marriage is concerned, the question may of course some day have to be answered. It is submitted that the answer should be arrived at by considering whether the State of the foreign domicil (or rather the jurisprudence of that State) attributed to such children the *status* of legitimacy in substantially the same sense as that of English jurisprudence. If so, there should be no reason for shrinking from the consequences. The necessity of fixing the attention upon the question of *legitimacy*, as distinguished from the consequences attributed by the law of foreign domicil to the fact of paternity, is illustrated by the case of *Atkinson v. Anderson*.^(b) In that case an Englishman acquired an Italian domicil, and became the father, in Italy, of four children, all recognised by him in his lifetime. The law of Italy gives the right of succession to natural-born children who have been so recognised. By a will duly made in English form, the father devised to these children *nominatim* real estate in England. The proceeds of this real estate having been paid into court, it was held that the Crown was entitled to succession duty at the rate of 10 per cent., on the ground that the devisees were strangers in blood by English law to the testator. This case has been criticised as a refusal to extend the principle of *Goodman's Trusts*, but it is submitted that it is perfectly

(a) *Conflict of Law*, ed. 1883, p. 146, n.

(b) 21 Ch. D. p. 109.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

in accordance with its spirit. The children in question were not legitimate by the law of their domicil. They were natural children, recognised by their father in his lifetime, to whom the law of their domicil gave the right of succession in Italy. By the law of England, natural children not regarded as legitimate by the law of their domicil are strangers in blood to their putative father; and the succession duty was assessed accordingly. Had they been claiming under an intestacy to share in the English personalty, the decision, it is submitted, would have been equally adverse to their rights. No law of a foreign country can give natural-born children the rights of legitimacy, or some of those rights, which will be recognised in England, except by declaring them legitimate. This condition was fully satisfied in *Skottow v. Young*,^(a) where the legatees of a domiciled Frenchman were his daughters born in France and there legitimated *per subsequens matrimonium*, and legacy duty at 1 per cent. only was charged.

In *Levy v. Solomon* ^(b) an attempt was made to set in competition with the *lex domicilii*, on the same question of legitimation *per subsequens matrimonium*, the laws or customs of a religious sect to which all the parties belonged. The testator, the parents, and the child whose legitimacy was in question, were all Jews domiciled in England, and evidence was offered to show that the rules of their religion, which they recognised as binding laws among themselves, authorised that legitimation by a subsequent marriage between the parents which it was sought to support. Whether, however, this so-called law was regarded as the law common to the parties, or as a *quasi-domiciliary* law, the contention was equally untenable. In such matters, the law of the domicil is not regarded because it may be presumed to express the intention of the parties, but because the interests of the general body of the inhabitants of the country in which they live

(a) L. R. 11 Eq. 474; 40 L. J. Ch. 366.

(b) *Malins v. V.C.*, July 24, 1877.

require its adoption. Neither a religious sect nor any other self-constituted body can be permitted to set up a claim to an *imperium in imperio*—the assertion of any other personal law within its domain.

PART I.
PERSONS.
CAP. IV.

Even if the decision of the domiciliary law of a person on his legitimacy was accepted by the law of a foreign country for any purpose, another condition would have to be complied with; viz., that there should be nothing absolutely repugnant to the law of that foreign country in what it was asked to accept. In *Fenton v. Livingstone*,^(a) a Scotch case on appeal to the House of Lords, the legitimacy of a claimant to succeed to Scotch land by inheritance was in question. The claimant was the issue of the marriage of a widower domiciled in England with his deceased wife's sister, the marriage having been contracted in England in 1808. At that time such marriages were voidable only, and not void by English law, and, if proceedings were not taken to declare them null before the death of either of the parties, could not be questioned afterwards. The claimant was nevertheless, though domiciled in England from his birth, held to be illegitimate by Scotch law. "It must be granted," said Lord Brougham, "that the general rule is to determine the validity of a marriage by the law of the country where the parties were domiciled, and in most cases the legitimacy of a party is to be determined by the law of his birth-place and of his parents' domicil. But to this . . . there are exceptions from the nature of the case in which the question arises. Thus, in deciding upon the title to real estate, the *lex loci rei sitæ* must always prevail, so that a person legitimate by the law of his birth-place, and the place where his parents were married, may not be regarded as legitimate to take real estate by inheritance elsewhere. . . . Was, then, the marriage of the respondent's parents such that the law of Scotland could recognise its validity, in dealing with the rights of the issue of it to real estate by inheritance?" (b)

Legitimacy
by *lex domicilii* must not
be repugnant
to *lex fori*.

(a) 5 Jur. N. S. 1183 (1859).

(b) 5 Jur. N. S. 1183, 1184.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

Lord Brougham then proceeded to state that, though the marriage could not be questioned in England after the death of the parties, yet it was illegal there, and that the law of Scotland was even more stringent on the point than the law of England. By the Scotch law such a marriage was regarded as incestuous, and as actually amounting to a crime; and therefore, even if the Scotch law could accept the decision of the foreign domiciliary law at all on the question of legitimacy to succeed to Scotch land, it could not do so where the recognition of such legitimacy would be absolutely repugnant to its own principles. So again, it was said by Littledale, J., in *Birtwhistle v. Vardill*,^(a) that personal *status* does not follow a man everywhere, if its consequences are opposed to the law of the country where he goes, and where it is sought to introduce them. The decision in *Compton v. Bearcroft*,^(b) the case which first recognised the validity in England of Scotch marriages, was similarly explained by subsequent judicial authority to be that "a Scotch marriage was valid in England, if there was nothing in it contrary to the law of England."^(c)

Statutory
declaration of
legitimacy.

Under 21 & 22 Vict. c. 93, persons domiciled in England, or claiming real or personal estate in England, may obtain from the Court for Divorce and Matrimonial Causes (now from the Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty Division of the High Court under s. 34 of the Judicature Act, 1873) a decree declaratory of their legitimacy or illegitimacy, or of the validity or invalidity of the marriage on which the question turns. Mr. Westlake points out (*Private Inter. Law*, § 407) that the statute does not interfere with the decisions of *Birtwhistle v. Vardill*,^(d) and *In re Don's Estate*,^(e) adverted to above; and that a declaration of legitimacy under it would not enable a man born before wedlock to take English land by descent. In the words of

(a) 5 B. & C. 455.

(b) Bull. N. P. 113.

(c) *Harford v. Morris*, 2 Hagg. Cons. 435.

(d) 7 Cl. & F. 895.

(e) 27 L. J. Ch. 99.

Lord Brougham in *Birtwhistle v. Vardill*,^(a) giving the effect of the opinion of the judges, "the statute, or rather the Common Law recognised and declared by the statute, requires something more than mere legitimacy to make an heir to real estate in England—it must be legitimacy *sub modo*—legitimacy and being born in wedlock."

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

SUMMARY.

LEGITIMACY.

Legitimacy for purposes of succession to immovable p. 60. property, including chattels real, in England is tested both by the English law as the *lex situs*, and by the *lex domicilii* of the inheritor, "Legitimacy" (so by the law of the domicil) alone is not sufficient; "it must be legitimacy *sub modo*—legitimacy, and being born in wedlock."

Legitimacy for purposes of succession to movable pro- p. 64. perty by devise is tested by the law of the domicil of the successor.

Legitimacy for purposes of succession to movable pro- p. 63. perty *ab intestato* is similarly tested by the law of the domicil of the successor.

The law of the domicil of the successor which decides p. 62. his legitimacy is the law of his domicil of origin, that is, in ordinary cases, his father's domicil. In cases of legitimisation *per subsequens matrimonium*, the law of the father's domicil both at the time of the birth and at the time of the subsequent marriage must admit of such legitimisation.

Legitimacy for the purpose of estimating legacy and pp. 65, 66. succession duty on movable property is decided by the same rules.

But a foreign law which gives the right of succession to natural children, who have been recognised in the lifetime p. 65. of the father, does not confer upon them the *status* of legitimacy for purposes of succession by English law.

(By the Scotch law, legitimacy for purposes of succes- p. 61.

(a) At p. 954. See as to the right of succession to chattels real, the note at the end of Chap. VI. (*infra*).

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

sion generally, other than succession to real estate, is referred to the law of the domicile—*i.e.*, the domicile of the father at the time of the birth. In cases of legitimization *per subsequens matrimonium*, a change in the domicile of the father after the birth and before the marriage is immaterial. The law of the domicile at the time of the birth decides once for all whether the child's bastardy is indelible or provisional only. Such legitimization, according to the law of domicile, will not, however, render a child born abroad, of a Scotchman by domicile and nationality, a natural-born British subject entitled, under 4 Geo. II. c. 21, to hold British land.)

Legitimacy for purposes other than succession under a will or *ab intestato* has not hitherto come in question, but the *dicta* point to the acceptance of the law of the domicile of the person on the point.

pp. 67, 68.

But legitimacy by the law of the domicile will not in any case be accepted, either by Scotch or English law, if its acceptance involves the recognition by that law of the validity of a marriage which it regards as incestuous or criminal.

MARRIAGE.

The question of what law must be applied to test the validity or invalidity of a marriage is so intimately connected with this part of the subject, that it is convenient to discuss it here, though not coming under the heading of *status*, strictly speaking. It will be necessary to consider, first, what law decides whether the marriage has been validly contracted; and secondly, what law decides, in the case of attempted divorce, whether it has been effectually dissolved.

Validity of marriage *ab initio*—forms tested by the *lex loci*, essentials by the *lex domicilii*.

(a) With regard, in the first place, to the validity of the marriage when entered into, it was clearly laid down in *Brook v. Brook* (a) by Lord Campbell, that the *essentials* of a marriage contract were to be regulated by the *lex*

(a) 9 H. L. C. 193.

domicilii, the forms by the *lex loci celebrationis*. The difference between essentials and forms in such a matter would naturally seem to be that between prohibitions that forbid, and prohibitory directions which merely impede, the marriage. This is, in fact, the result of the modern cases, which at first sight seem rather contradictory, on the subject. If the parties can, by complying with certain regulations or obtaining the consent of certain people, intermarry in the country of the matrimonial domicil, the performance of those conditions will not be required by an English Court, which will recognise the marriage as valid, provided the ceremonials and preliminaries required by the law of the place of celebration have been complied with. If, on the other hand, the parties are forbidden by the law of the domicil to intermarry at all, they cannot, except by a change of domicil, escape from that prohibition. The matrimonial domicil being the place where the law presumes that the parties intend to spend their married life, the propriety of this rule is obvious. Most of the cases were thought to involve a question of capacity, and have been referred under that heading.^(a) It will be necessary, however, briefly to enumerate them here.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

The case of *Brook v. Brook* has already been referred to. That was the marriage of a man with his deceased wife's sister, both parties being domiciled in England and having gone to Denmark, where such unions are permitted, for the purposes of celebration. It was not, as has been pointed out, decided that they were *incapable* of marrying; but that they were *forbidden* by the law of their domicil to do so, and that the marriage was therefore illegal. Lord Campbell, laying down that the *essentials* of a marriage were to be governed by the *lex domicilii*, rightly decided that such illegality was an essential, and that there had been in the eye of the law no marriage at all. It should be observed that the parties, according to English law, could not intermarry, whatever forms or preliminaries they fulfilled;

Validity of
marriage *ab*
initio—cases
illustrating.

(a) *Ante*, p. 47, *seq.*; see also *infra*, Chap. VIII., "Capacity to contract."

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

and the case therefore differs entirely from those later ones in which it has been held that parties, forbidden to marry by the law of their domicile without certain consents and authorisations, may nevertheless do so in England, provided the English forms are complied with. The principle of *Brook v. Brook* was followed in *Mette v. Mette*,^(a) the marriage of an alien domiciled and naturalised in England with his deceased wife's sister being similarly held void. The case is only noticeable because the man's English domicile was acquired, and not that of his birth, which of course does not affect the real principle. Still, it should be observed that the marriage was in that case valid both by the law of the place of celebration and by that of the domicile of origin, the law of the actual domicile at the time of the marriage being alone regarded.

The earlier case of *Conway v. Beazley* ^(b) was not in reality a decision as to the validity of a marriage (though apparently so), but as to the validity of a divorce. The head-note, no doubt, enunciates that the *lex loci contractus* will not prevail when either of the contracting parties is under a legal incapacity by the law of his domicile; but in reality there was no question of capacity or incapacity in the case. The "incapacity" depended upon the simple fact, whether the husband was or was not already married at the time of the marriage which it was sought to annul; and it was undeniable that he was already married, in the eye of the English law, unless a Scotch divorce was to be held by English law competent to dissolve a marriage previously celebrated in England. Such a proposition was untenable, as will be presently shown,^(c) and the second marriage was therefore rightly declared void.

In *Sinonin v. Maillac* ^(d) a conflict between the *lex domicilii* and the *lex loci celebrationis* directly arose, with regard to the preliminaries to marriage required by the

^(a) 28 L. J. Prob. 117.

^(b) 3 Hagg. Eccl. 639.

^(c) *Infra*, p. 85; *Lolley's Case*, R. & R. 237; *M'Carthy v. Decaix*, 2 Russ. & My. 614; *Warrender v. Warrender*, 2 Cl. & F. 550.

^(d) 2 Sw. & Tr. 67 (1860).

former. The marriage which it was sought to dissolve was one celebrated in England between French subjects domiciled in France without the formal consents required by the French law. Sir Cresswell Cresswell decided that the marriage was valid, chiefly on the ground that the personal competency or incompetency of individuals to contract depends upon the law of the place where the contract is made. It has already been pointed out that a more logical view is obtained by regarding the question, not as one of the competency of an individual, but of the legality of a marriage. The parties were not prohibited from marrying by the law of their domicile absolutely, but prohibited from marrying without certain preliminaries. Such a prohibition did not touch the *essentials*, but the *forms* of the marriage, and these are governed, according to *Brook v. Brook*,^(a) by the law of the place of the celebration alone. It cannot, of course, be assumed that if such a marriage were questioned in the country of the domicile, the law of which required the consents which had been dispensed with, this view would be taken there. The law of the domicile would possibly persist in regarding the preliminaries which it had imposed as *essential*, and assert its right to insist upon them, although the marriage was celebrated elsewhere; but as the law of England has now no similar provisions, and imposes no preliminaries but such as it would regard as ceremonial merely, the question has little practical importance for English jurists.^(b) The view, however, which has been suggested above, that all such consents are ceremonial preliminaries only, was taken in the Irish case of *Steele v. Braddell*,^(c) referred to with approval by the House of Lords in *Brook v. Brook*.^(d) "This was a marriage," says Lord Campbell in that case, "between parties who might, with the consent of parents and guardians, have contracted a valid marriage according to the law of the country of the husband's domicile. . . .

^(a) 9 H. L. C. 193.

^(b) See *Scrimshire v. Scrimshire*, 2 Cons. 395; *Middleton v. Janverin*, 2 Cons. 437; *Compton v. Bearcroft*, 2 Cons. 444.

^(c) Milw. Eccl. Rep. Ir. 1.

^(d) 9 H. L. C. p. 216.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

If the union between these parties had been prohibited by the law of Ireland (the law of the domicile) as contrary to the law of God, undoubtedly the marriage would have been dissolved."

Re Alison's Trusts (a) was the case of a marriage at Teheran, in Persia. By Persian law Christian marriages are recognised, if valid according to the religion of the parties. The marriage was between an English Protestant and an Armenian Protestant woman. The pregnancy of the woman at the time rendered her incapable of contracting a marriage according to the doctrine of her own Church, and the ceremony was performed by a Roman Catholic priest. The so-called incapacity of the woman was in this case only important as the *cause* that the formalities of the *locus celebrationis* were not complied with. As a matter of fact, there seems to have been no law according to which the marriage could have been supported; and it is noteworthy that no attempt was made by the man (who was actually the vice-consul) to avail himself of the provisions of the Consular Marriages Act (12 & 13 Vict. c. 68) (*infra*).

Sottomayor v. De Barros, (b) the most recent case on this subject, comes almost exactly within the meaning of the distinction drawn by Lord Campbell in *Brook v. Brook*, just cited. The parties there were domiciled Portuguese, forbidden by Portuguese law to intermarry at all. Sir R. Phillimore, in the court of first instance, held that their marriage celebrated in England was valid, conceiving himself to be bound by the decision in *Sinonin v. Maillac*. (c) The Court of Appeal, however, reversed his judgment, holding that as the parties were absolutely forbidden to marry by the law of their domicile, they could

(a) 23 W. R. 226; 34 L. T. Rep. N. S. 638.

(b) 37 L. T. 415; *Fenton v. Livingstone*, 5 Jur. N. S. 1183. *Sottomayor v. De Barros* was decided by the Court of Appeal on the assumption that the domicile was Portuguese. The decision having been on the pleadings only, the case was remitted for trial to the Probate Division. Hannen, J., found that the domicile of the respondent was in fact English, and the petition was ultimately dismissed: *Sottomayor v. De Barros* (2), 5 P. D. 94; 49 L. J. P. & M. 1.

(c) 2 Sw. & Tr. 67.

not escape from this prohibition by transient presence and celebration in England, and that the possibility of escaping from Portuguese law by a Papal dispensation was immaterial. The wording of the judgment of the Court of Appeal rested on the more than questionable principle (a) that the capacity of a person to contract was tested by his personal law; but the distinction between this case and that of *Sinonin v. Maillac* is plain, and the actual result of the decision of the Court of Appeal is clearly in accordance with *Brook v. Brook*. (b)

Ruding v. Smith, (c) though one of the earliest cases on this subject, having been decided by Lord Stowell in 1821, has been purposely left for consideration until the tendency and principles of the modern decisions had been sufficiently indicated. That was a marriage celebrated at the Cape of Good Hope while under military occupation of the British forces immediately after its acquisition, and the ceremony was performed by the chaplain-general under the sanction of the military authorities, according to British forms. Both the contracting parties were British by nationality and domicile. The validity of the marriage was impeached on two grounds; first, that the Dutch law, as the *lex loci celebrationis*, prohibited the parties from marrying at their respective ages without the consents of parents and guardians, which had not been obtained; and, secondly, that the ceremony had not been performed according to the forms required by the same law. According to the principles already stated, it will be seen that the *lex loci celebrationis* was *prima facie* the law to decide both these questions, but in the particular case there were exceptional circumstances to be considered. By the capitulation of the colony it had been stipulated that the conquered should retain certain privileges, including the enjoyment of their own laws and customs, and Lord Stowell deduced from this that the *lex loci* had been altered for all others

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

(a) *Ante*, p. 47; *infra*, Chap. VII. (ii.)

(b) 9 H. L. C. 216.

(c) 2 Hagg. Cons. 371.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

except those in whose favour the stipulation was made—that for British domiciled subjects with the British forces, in short, the *lex loci* was in fact British. On this view the decision was not that the *lex domicilii* must prevail in such matters when in conflict with the *lex loci*, but that the law common to the parties had, under the peculiar circumstances of the case, taken the place of the latter. The case of *Harford v. Morris*,^(a) decided in the same year, similarly depended upon the exceptional facts in it, which render it of no authority on the question of the competition of the law of the domicil and that of the place of celebration.

So far as British subjects are concerned, special provision has been made by statute for the validity of marriages abroad according to English forms. By 4 Geo. IV. c. 91, it was enacted and declared that all marriages solemnised by a minister of the Church of England ^(b) in the chapel or house of any British ambassador or Minister, or in a chapel or house of any British factory abroad, or within the British lines of any British army abroad, shall be as valid as if duly solemnised in the United Kingdom with the forms (there) required. The statute purports to be declaratory; and, so far as the precincts of British legations are concerned, the legality of such marriages depends (apart from the statute) on the principles of extra-territoriality.^(c) So far as it relates to marriages within the lines of British troops abroad, it is based on the Common Law, which allowed such marriages when there was hostile occupation of a foreign soil,^(d) and probably also when the occupation was friendly.^(e)

The same doctrine applies to other cases of necessity.^(f)

Ships of war, even in foreign territorial waters, are regarded as integral parts of the dominions of their

^(a) 2 Hagg. Cons. 371.

^(b) A Bill has been introduced in the present session (1890) to legalise marriages in British embassies and ships before authorised persons other than ministers of the Church of England.

^(c) *Vide infra*, Chap. V. (iii).

^(d) *Rex v. Inhabitants of Brampton*, 10 East, 282.

^(e) *Burn v. Farrar*, 2 Hagg. Cons. 369.

^(f) As in *Lindo v. Belisario*, 1 Hagg. Cons. 216.

Sovereign, for marriage as for other purposes. It has been held that the statute 4 Geo. IV. c. 91, applies to cases where the nationality of the husband only was British, and that both his domicile and the nationality of the wife were immaterial.^(a)

But one at least of the contracting parties must be a British subject; ^(b) and it would be, perhaps, difficult to suggest such a marriage in cases where an Englishwoman was married abroad to a foreigner both by nationality or domicile. The question would probably depend upon the view taken of the marriage by the foreign law, being the law of the matrimonial domicile.

The Act of 4 Geo. IV. c. 91, being applicable only to British legations, British lines, and British factories, it was found expedient to pass a wider statute. The 12 & 13 Vict. c. 68, was accordingly passed, which legalised all marriages (where both or one of the parties was a British subject) which should be solemnised at the British consulate, according to any forms and ceremonies, after certain prescribed notices. In marriages not according to the rites of the Church of England, certain essential declarations are prescribed as part of the ceremony by s. 9.^(c)

It is plain that the validity given to marriages abroad by statutes such as the 12 & 13 Vict. c. 68, cannot claim recognition in any courts other than those of the Legislature which passed the statutes. Such recognition may sometimes be given to them in cases where the matrimonial domicile is British as well as the nationality of the parties, but it cannot be relied upon. The province of the *lex domicilii* is the "essentials" of the marriage, and has nothing to do, in strictness, with the forms of celebration."^(d)

The Greek Marriages Act, 1884 (47 & 48 Vict. c. 20), is an almost unique instance of validity being given to

(a) *Re Wright's Trusts*, 25 L. J. Ch. at p. 631.

(b) *Pertreus v. Tondear*, 1 Hagg. Cons. 136.

(c) "Consul" under this Act includes "acting-consul," 31 & 32 Vict. c. 61.

(d) Instructions issued by the Foreign Office as to the Consular Marriages Act will be found set out in full in the Appendix to Hammick's "Marriage Law" (App. x. p. 375).

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

Marriage must be that which the *lex fori* recognises as such.

Illicit or incestuous intercourse not recognised.

marriages not contracted to local forms, by *ex post facto* legislation. The retrospective law being the *lex loci celebrationis*, it may fairly be argued that such cases ought to be regarded by all Courts as if the local law had existed at the time; but it is impossible to predict the view which might be taken of this legislation by a foreign tribunal.^(a)

It has been seen above that the English law still, following the principle of *Brook v. Brook*,^(b) refers the essentials of a marriage to the law of the domicile. This must, however, be taken subject to the qualification that it will not allow anything to be called marriage, either by the law of the domicile or the place of celebration, which it does not itself recognise as such; and accordingly, in *Hyde v. Hyde*,^(c) the Probate and Divorce Court refused to acknowledge a Mormon marriage apparently celebrated in Utah, though both the contracting parties were single at the time of the so-called marriage, and had never assumed to contract another. It was said in that case by the Judge-Ordinary (Sir C. Cresswell) that a marriage in Christendom was an entirely different thing, both in its essence and incidents, from what was called a marriage in a country where polygamy was practised; and he referred to the case of *Ardaseer Cursetjee v. Perozeboye*,^(d) where the Privy Council held that Parsee marriages were not within the force of a charter extending the jurisdiction of the Ecclesiastical Court to her Majesty's subjects in India "so far as the circumstances and occasions of the said people shall require."

There is abundant authority to show that a marriage which the English law regards as criminal or incestuous will not under any circumstances be accepted by it as valid. "The rule," said Littledale, J., "that personal *status* accompanies a man everywhere is admitted to have this qualification, that it does not militate against the law

(a) So far as the limits of the British Empire are concerned, retrospective legislation as to the validity of marriages is given a wider recognition by the Colonial Marriages Validity Act, 1865 (28 & 29 Vict. c. 64).

(b) 9 H. L. C. 193.

(c) L. R. 1 P. & D. 130.

(d) 10 Moo. P. C. 375, 419.

of the country where the consequences of that *status* are sought to be introduced" (a). So, in *Harford v. Morris* (b) it was explained that the decisions establishing the validity of Scotch marriages in England simply amounted to this, that a Scotch marriage was lawful in England if there was nothing in it contrary to the law of England. Subject, therefore, to this qualification, that the marriage which the Court is asked to recognise shall be marriage, and not incest or mere illicit intercourse of the sexes, it appears clear that the English law refers forms to the *lex loci* and *essentials* to the *lex domicilii*; and further, that the only *essential* question which is practically ever referred to the latter law is this—Are the parties permitted by it to intermarry at all? The old cases (c) cited by Story (Conflict of Laws, § 79) for the proposition that English law does not recognise the *invalidity* of a marriage celebrated abroad which is pronounced void by the *lex loci* have been already referred to as not in fact establishing his assertion. It is plain that if English law recognises foreign formalities as *sufficient* for a foreign marriage between domiciled English subjects, it is only a logical consequence to regard them, subject to the exceptions of extra-territoriality, (d) as *necessary*; and no modern decision throws a doubt upon the consistent application of the principle in future whenever the question may arise. The only difficulty that has ever really arisen has been to decide what are the formalities and what the essentials of the contract—a difficulty which is now solved, reading *Sinonin v. Maillac* (e) and *Sottomayor v. De Barros* together, by regarding everything as a formality for the *lex loci*, except unconditional prohibition.

It will be seen that there is nothing in these principles, Colonial marriage with deceased wife's
nor in the decision in *Brook v. Brook*, (f) to prevent the English law from recognising the validity of the marriage sister.

(a) *Birtwhistle v. Vardill*, 5 B. & C. 455.

(b) 2 Hagg. Cons. 435; *Compton v. Bearcroft*, Bull. N. P. 113; and see *Fenton v. Livingstone*, 5 Jur. N. S. 1183.

(c) *Ruding v. Smith*, 2 Hagg. Cons. 390; *Harford v. Morris*, *ibid.* 432.

(d) See *infra*, Chap. V.

(e) 2 Sw. & Tr. 67; 37 L. T. 415.

(f) 9 H. L. C. 193.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

of a foreigner or colonist with his deceased wife's sister, in the country of their common domicile where such unions are legal, unless such a marriage be regarded as an incestuous crime, repugnant to the spirit of English jurisprudence.(a) It is difficult to maintain this proposition in the face of the fact that colonial statutes recognising the validity of such marriages have repeatedly received the sanction of the Crown. Yet, if such marriages are not to be branded by the law of England as criminal and incestuous, it follows that they are perfectly valid according to the theory of international law which it has just been shown that English law adopts, and according to the same theory their offspring would be legitimate. In practice, however, they are not so, because the question of their legitimacy, as has been pointed out, almost invariably arises with regard to their right to succeed to movable or immovable property by devise or *ab intestato*, and this right is governed by a new set of considerations. Succession to immovable property, according to *Birtwhistle v. Vardill*,(b) demands not only legitimacy by the personal law, but legitimacy by the *lex situs*—i.e., that the persons concerned shall have been born in what the English law calls wedlock, speaking for itself, and not as adopting the principles of international law. In a similar way it was at first held that English law interfered with regard to succession to movable property, where the testator or intestate was domiciled in England, as the law of his domicile, and claimed to interpret the word "child" or "son" according to its own independent views of what is paternity, and what is wedlock.(c) Thus, whenever succession to immovables or mov-

(a) Lord Cairns, speaking in the House of Lords in 1883, said on this subject: "My view of the law upon the point is this—that if a man, being domiciled in a colony in which it is lawful to marry a deceased wife's sister does marry his deceased wife's sister, his marriage with her is good all the world over; whereas, if the man is a domiciled Englishman, not domiciled in the colony, but merely resident there, his marriage with his deceased wife's sister in such circumstances is bad everywhere, because he carries the impediment of his domicile to such a marriage with him."—*Hansard's Parl. Debates*, June 11, 1883 (vol. 280, p. 158).

(b) *Boyes v. Bedale*, 1 H. & M. 798; overruled in *Re Goodman's Trusts*, 17 Ch. D. 266; see *ante*, p. 63.

(c) 7 Cl. & F. 895.

ables was in question, the children of a man by his deceased wife's sister, married to him in the country of their common domicile where such unions are legal, were regarded as bastards, and the marriage itself as a nullity. When neither the *lex situs* as to immovables, nor the *lex domicilii* with regard to a movable succession, interferes, it has been shown, subject to the qualifications stated above, that English law regards such a marriage, complying both as to forms and essentials with the law of the domicile of the parties and of the place of celebration, as perfectly valid. It is obvious, for instance, that such a husband, coming to England and contracting a new marriage there in the lifetime of his second wife, would be liable to be indicted for bigamy, though the point has not yet arisen, and possibly never will. The expediency of adhering to legal principles which thus render it necessary to reject the validity of a marriage for certain purposes of comparatively common occurrence, and to accept it theoretically for others which are more hypothetical, is at least questionable. It should surely be sufficient for the English law, whether speaking as the *lex situs* of immovables, or as the *lex domicilii* with respect to a movable succession, to follow those maxims of international law which have become part of itself by adoption. The "vainglorious conservatism" of the feudal maxim "*Nullus princeps legitimat ad succedendum in bona alterius territorii*"^(a) might well be satisfied by such a rational interpretation, without insisting that the English law shall for purposes of succession refuse to be content with obedience to those rules, founded on expediency and on the comity of nations, which it professes elsewhere to incorporate with itself. It cannot be too strongly insisted upon that international law is a part of the law of every nation, and it would perhaps be beneficial if English jurisprudence were readier to admit it as such. There is, however, no tendency at the present time to do so, and more than one instance has recently occurred in which it has been held absolutely necessary that international law should

(a) D'Argentré, Comm. Art. 218.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

receive the stamp of the English Legislature before English Courts can acknowledge its existence. The result of the Geneva Arbitration, with the subsequent passing of the Foreign Enlistment Act, 1870 (33 & 34 Vict. c. 90), affords one striking illustration of the view referred to; and another may be found in the decision of *R. v. Keyn*,^(a) where it was held in effect that, even assuming that international law conferred on every nation jurisdiction within three miles from its shores, English Courts could not accept or exercise the jurisdiction thus attributed to them without the authorisation of an English statute. It is beyond a doubt, therefore, that, so far as succession to immovables is concerned, nothing but an Act of the Legislature will effect that recognition of the legitimacy of the issue of a colonist married to his deceased wife's sister which the principles of private international law do in fact demand, and a Bill has been at least once unsuccessfully introduced into Parliament to effect this result. It would no doubt be sufficient to enact, that persons legitimate by the law of their domicile of birth shall be so in England for all intents and purposes whatsoever, including that of succession to real and personal estate; and it is at least possible that the postponement of such an enactment is only temporary.

Privilegia.

The effect of *privilegia*, or laws specially passed with reference to one or more individuals, depriving them of the right either of marrying or entering into any other relation permitted to other sane adults, is no doubt to create an artificial incapacity of a particular kind, and for certain purposes. The incapacity, however, being an artificial and not a natural one, cannot demand recognition in other countries; and the law creating it will be imperative only in the tribunals of the sovereign Power by which that law was enacted. The law may direct those Courts to

(a) L. R. 2 Ex. D. 63; see the statute passed in consequence of this decision, 41 & 42 Vict. c. 73 (Territorial Waters Jurisdiction Act, 1878). It has been pointed out elsewhere (*infra*, Chap. IX.) that the wording of this statute in effect declares the judgment in *R. v. Keyn* to have been wrong: see per Coleridge, C.J., in *Reg. v. Dudley*, 14 Q. B. D. 273.

refuse to recognise a marriage contracted in any country by the subject of the *privilegium*, or only to regard as invalid any marriage contracted by him within its territorial jurisdiction. The former has been held to be the proper construction of the Royal Marriage Act (12 Geo. III. c. 11), (a) the judges saying, in answer to a question put to them by the House of Lords, that that statute does not enact an incapacity to contract matrimony within one particular country and district or another, but to contract matrimony generally and in the abstract. It creates an incapacity attaching itself to the person of A. B., which he carries with him wherever he goes. The difference between such an enactment and the ordinary Marriage Acts, which require certain consents as necessary preliminaries to a valid marriage in a certain country, has been already pointed out. (b) British Acts of attainder, on the other hand, though they may possibly render the attainted person incapable of contracting a valid marriage within the dominions of the Crown, do not claim any extra-territorial recognition as to marriages contracted abroad, nor are such foreign marriages regarded as invalid even by British Courts. (c) "It would be a most revolting conclusion to come to," says Erle, C.J., in the case cited, "that the marriage of a man, who was capable of contracting in the land in which he was living, with a woman who was born and brought up in that land, and who might even have been ignorant of her husband's attainder, was invalid, and their children illegitimate, because the man had been attainted before he went abroad. If such were the law, I should not shrink from enforcing it; but I believe that it is not the law of our land, though it is said to be the law of France." (d) The more correct view, indeed, appears to be that a British Act of attainder does not even in-

Acts of
attainder.

(a) *The Sussex Peerage Case*, 11 Cl. & F. 85.

(b) *Ante*, p. 71; and see *Compton v. Bearcroft*, Bull. N. P. 6th ed. 113. 2 Hag. Cons. 443, n.; *Ilderton v. Ilderton*, 2 H. Bl. 145.

(c) *Kynnaird v. Leslie*, L. R. 1 C. P. 389.

(d) *Kynnaird v. Leslie*, L. R. 1 C. P. 389. *Vide Hobby's Case*, *sub nom. Boreston and Adams*, Noy, 158; 4 Leon. 5; Palm. 19; *Collingwood v. Puce*, 1 Vent. 413; Bridg. 410.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

capacitate the attainted person from contracting a valid marriage in England, or, at any rate, that it renders such a marriage voidable merely, and not void.(a)

On analogous principles, it has been held that where a marriage has been dissolved by the *forum domicilii*, and the law of the domicile professes to render the guilty party incapable of re-marriage during the lifetime of the divorced spouse, the artificial incapacity which it professes to create will not be required in an English court. The marriage must either be dissolved for all purposes, or not at all; and the children of a second marriage contracted during the existence of the prohibition are consequently legitimate.(b)

It should be observed, however, that in the case cited the second marriage was contracted in England. It would be difficult to contend for the validity of a second marriage in the State whose law imposed the disability, and in a case where the new matrimonial domicile was the same as that of the first or dissolved marriage.

SUMMARY.

PP. 70-76.

Marriage is governed, as to its *essentials*, by the law of the domicile of the parties; as to its *forms*, by the law of the place of celebration.

The law of the domicile of the parties is the proper law to decide whether the marriage can, by the use of any forms, ceremonies, or preliminaries, be effected.

The law of the place of celebration is the proper law to decide what forms, ceremonies, or preliminaries shall be employed.

If the law of the matrimonial domicile is such that the marriage cannot be effected by obeying its directions, but can be effected by obtaining a dispensation from its prohibitions, the marriage cannot, in the absence of such

(a) Per Willes, J., in *Kynnaird v. Leslie*, L. R. 1 C. P. 389, 400; *Phillips v. Eyre*, L. R. 6 Q. B. 7.

(b) *Scott v. Attorney-General*, L. R. 11 P. D. 128.

dispensation, be legalised by the law of the place of celebration.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

The law of any country may, and the English Royal Marriage Act does, not only prohibit certain persons from contracting marriage in England except on certain prescribed conditions, but refuse to recognise any marriage contracted by such persons elsewhere when these conditions have not been complied with. p. 82.

Marriage, to be recognised by an English Court, must be that which is recognised as marriage by Christendom, and not a mere disguise for illicit intercourse or criminal incest. p. 78.

(b) *Dissolution of the Marriage*.—Under this head it is necessary to consider, in the first place, what divorces by foreign tribunals will be recognised as valid by English law; and, secondly, what marriages the English Court will assume jurisdiction to dissolve. On the first point, the English law is frequently loosely expressed by saying that an English marriage cannot be dissolved by a foreign Court or authority, and that any decree purporting to effect such dissolution must be regarded as a nullity. (a) *Lolley's Case* (b) is the authority commonly cited in support of this proposition, and, as far as regards a marriage celebrated in England in which the domicil of the husband remains English, it is undoubtedly correct. Unless the parties are *bona fide* domiciled under the foreign jurisdiction which assumes to dissolve their marriage at the time of such attempted dissolution, it is quite clear that the English Courts will not recognise the validity of any such divorce. *Lolley's Case*, in which a man who was convicted of bigamy for having married again in England after a Scotch divorce from an English marriage, was followed in *Conway v. Beazley*, (c) expressly upon the ground that, so long as the parties remain domiciled in England, no

Foreign divorce has no effect on an English marriage,

at any rate if the domicil of the parties is English.

(a) See, e.g., the judgment of Kindersley, V.C., in *Wilson's Trusts*, L. R. 1 Eq. 247.

(b) 1 Russ. & Ry. 237.

(c) 3 Hagg. Eccl. Rep. 639.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

Scotch divorce of an English marriage can be recognised by English law. Dr. Lushington in that case expressed a strong opinion that the principle which denied recognition to such divorces had no application to cases where the parties were domiciled at the time in the country whose tribunals assumed to divorce them. So, in *Dolphin v. Robins*,^(a) a Scotch divorce of an English marriage, where the parties were not domiciled in Scotland, but had gone there for a time to found a jurisdiction according to Scotch law, was held invalid.^(b) And in the more recent case of *Shaw v. Attorney-General*,^(c) where a woman had left her English husband in England, and, after a residence of two or three years in America, obtained a divorce there, her husband's domicile continuing English, her second marriage in America was held invalid.

Divorce by
the *forum*
domicilii.

In none of the cases cited in the preceding paragraph had it been decided that an English marriage cannot be dissolved by a foreign tribunal where the parties at the time of the divorce are *bonâ fide* domiciled in that foreign State. Unquestionably, however, the decision of Lord Brougham in *McCarthy v. Decaix* ^(d) must be regarded as intending to lay down such a rule. It must be remembered, however, that this case was decided in 1831, when divorce *à vinculo* was not recognised in England by the Ecclesiastical Courts; and the difficulty of admitting the power of a foreign tribunal to dissolve an English marriage was therefore greater than at present. Since the judgment of the House of Lords in *Harvey v. Farnie*,^(e) this case can no longer be regarded as law. Even before the judgment referred to, *McCarthy v. Decaix* had been treated as open to question. *Warrender v. Warrender* ^(f) was, it is true, a decision on Scotch law, but the House of Lords there clearly held that it was competent for the Scotch Courts to decree a divorce

^(a) 7 H. L. C. 390; *Pitt v. Pitt*, 4 Macq. 627.

^(b) *Shaw v. Gould*, L. R. 3 H. L. 55; *Tollemache v. Tollemache*, 1 S. & T. 557; 28 L. J. P. & M. 2.

^(c) L. R. 2 P. & D. 156.

^(d) 2 R. & M. 614.

^(e) 6 P. D. 35; S. C. on appeal, 8 App. Cas. 43, 52.

^(f) 2 Cl. & F. 529.

between parties domiciled in Scotland whose marriage had been celebrated in England. The same principle had been adopted both in Irish (a) and Scotch courts. (b) The existing English law on the subject was perhaps best summarised by the Judge-Ordinary (Lord Penzance) in *Shaw v. Attorney-General* (c) in 1870. "First," he says, "*Lolley's Case* has never been overruled. Secondly, in no case has a foreign divorce been held to invalidate an English marriage between English subjects where the parties were not domiciled in the country by whose tribunals the divorce was granted. Whether, if so domiciled, the English Courts would recognise and act upon such a divorce, appears to be a question not wholly free from doubt, but the better opinion seems to be that they would do so if the divorce be for a ground of divorce recognised as such in this country, and the foreign country be not resorted to for the collusive purpose of calling in the aid of its tribunals." In the case of *Birt v. Boutinez*, (d) before the Judge-Ordinary in 1868, the point did not really arise, as the parties had gone through the ceremony of marriage twice, once in Scotland and afterwards in Belgium (where the husband was domiciled), and the Belgian divorce did not purport to do more than dissolve the Belgian marriage, which according to English law had created no new *status* between the parties. Nor was the principle at all involved in the case of *Collis v. Hector*, (e) which only decided that a Turkish divorce had no operation to interfere with the validity of an English marriage settlement between a domiciled Turk and an English lady, though it would have had that effect according to the law of Turkey. The judgment of Vice-Chancellor Hall in that case by no means involved the assertion that the marriage had not been effectually dissolved, but proceeded on the ground that the settlement was an English contract,

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

Foreign
divorce of
English mar-
riage by the
forum domi-
cili—now
recognised.

(a) *Maghes v. M'Allister*, 3 Ir. Ch. 604.

(b) *Geils v. Geils*, 1 Macq. 255; 13 Court Sess. Cas. (2nd Series), 321.

(c) L. R. 2 P. & D. 156, 161. Cf. the language of Lord Westbury in *Shaw v. Gould*, L. R. 3 H. L. 80.

(d) L. R. 1 P. & D. 487.

(e) L. R. 19 Eq. 334.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

to be expounded and dealt with according to English law. In the older case of *Ryan v. Ryan* (a) the validity of a Danish divorce of an English marriage was admitted, the husband being domiciled in Denmark, but only for the purpose of granting administration to the widow of a second marriage, no opinion being expressed as to the general principle. The singular case of separation by vows of chastity arose in *Connelly v. Connelly*, (b) and was regarded as a species of consensual divorce, which the Court was evidently inclined to consider must be governed as to its effect and permanence by the law of the domicile of the parties at the time of the separation, and the allegation of the respondent was ordered to be amended that the facts relating to this question might be ascertained.

Jurisdiction
of the *forum*
domicilii now
recognised.

The English law on this subject having been left in this uncertain state, the whole question came before the Courts in 1880 in the case of *Harvey v. Farnie*, (c) in which all the existing authorities were reviewed. The result of that case was to establish the general principle that the *forum* of the matrimonial domicile is competent to dissolve a marriage contracted in England, even for a cause (such as adultery of the husband) which is insufficient in itself to support a claim for divorce in England. The decision is put by Lord Selborne upon the ground that the marriage is contracted with a view to the matrimonial domicile, and that the wife becomes thereby subject to her husband's law. It would seem to follow that the principle of *Harvey v. Farnie* would be equally applicable to cases where the matrimonial domicile was changed after marriage, and even, therefore, to the case of a marriage in England to a domiciled Englishman, where a foreign domicile was afterwards acquired, and a divorce obtained in the country of that domicile. (d) The case suggested by James, L.J., of an

(a) 2 Phill. Eccl. 332.

(b) 7 Moo. P. C. 438.

(c) 5 P. D. 153; 8 C. 6 P. D. 35; 8 App. Cas. 43. Followed in *Turner v. Thompson*, 13 P. D. 37.

(d) See per Lord Blackburn, 8 App. Cas. at pp. 60, 61; per James, L.J., 6 P. D. 46, 47; per Cotton, L.J., *ibid.* 49.

English husband going to a foreign country for the sole purpose of domiciling himself where a divorce could be more easily obtained seems (strictly speaking) to be rather an illustration of the difficulty of deciding when a new domicile is acquired. This must be always a question of fact, and no Court would hold that a mere temporary transference of the matrimonial home for the sake of obtaining a divorce could bring about a change of domicile at all. On the other hand, if other circumstances established the *animus manendi* beyond doubt, it is difficult to see why one of the original motives should vitiate the effect of facts.(a)

If the *forum* be the *forum domicilii*, it would appear *Locus delicti*. to be immaterial that the *locus delicti* should have been within another jurisdiction; and it has been said by Lord Lyndhurst that the law makes no distinction in respect of the place of the commission of the offence.(b) And Story states the American doctrine to be, that the law of the place of the actual *bona fide* domicile gives jurisdiction to the proper Courts to decree a divorce for any cause allowed by the local law, without any reference to the law of the place of the original marriage, or the place where the offence for which the divorce is allowed was committed.(c) On somewhat similar principles it has been held that neglect or refusal to render conjugal rights in England does not give jurisdiction to the English Court, at any rate against a husband who has since quitted this country. The wife's remedy for matrimonial wrongs must be usually sought in the place of that domicile.(d) Whether such jurisdiction exists against a foreigner temporarily present in England appears from the last case to be left doubtful.

The right of the *forum domicilii*, however, to dissolve a Divorce—must not impose a disability.

(a) See, on this point, the finding as to domicile, and the language generally, of Hannen, J., in *Briggs v. Briggs*, 5 P. D. 163, 165.

(b) *Warrender v. Warrender*, 2 Cl. & F. at p. 562.

(c) Story, Conf. § 230 a.

(d) *Firebrace v. Firebrace*, 4 P. D. 63, 67; disapproving *Yelverton v. Yelverton*, 1 Sw. & Tr. 586.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

marriage does not carry with it the right to impose disabilities. The marriage must either be dissolved for all purposes, or not at all; and a personal disability to re-marry will not follow the person into another jurisdiction—at any rate when such person removes with an intention of changing his domicile.^(a) But if the tribunal which dissolves the marriage forbids the re-marriage of *either* of the spouses within a fixed period after the date of the decree, a marriage contracted by either of them within that period, even in another country, will be invalid.^(b) The distinction appears to be, that an attempt to dissolve the marriage and at the same time impose a penal and personal disability on the guilty party is ineffectual, but that the Court which has jurisdiction to dissolve the marriage is competent to fix a time from and after which such dissolution shall be regarded as complete.

Jurisdiction of English Court to dissolve foreign marriages.

English domicile of husband sufficient to found jurisdiction.

The second question which arises with reference to the subject of divorce is, under what circumstances the English Court will assume jurisdiction to dissolve a marriage not contracted in England, and whether it will in all cases dissolve a marriage which has been so contracted, without regard to the matrimonial domicile at the time its interference is invoked. With regard to the first point, it may be regarded as established that the English Court will dissolve a marriage, without reference to the place where it was contracted, if the domicile of the husband—*i.e.*, the matrimonial domicile—is English at the time of the petition. In *Brodie v. Brodie* ^(c) the marriage was celebrated in Tasmania, and the petitioner, who was the husband, had acquired an Australian domicile. It was alleged on his behalf that he had since gained a new domicile in England, and the full Court regarded it as unquestionable that, if this were established, they would have jurisdiction to dissolve the marriage. Some evidence of the change of domicile was given, and the Court eventu-

^(a) *Scott v. Attorney-General*, 11 P. D. 123.

^(b) *Warter v. Warter*, in P. D., June 25, 1890 (see *Times* of that date), not yet reported.

^(c) 2 Sw. & Tr. 257; 30 L. J. P. & M. 185.

ally came to the conclusion that the petitioner was "*bond fide* resident" in England, so as to give them the jurisdiction contended for. A distinction was drawn in this case between such "*bond fide* residence" and strict domicile, the Court remarking that they said nothing as to what the effect of the evidence might have been in a testamentary suit, but that they thought it had been sufficiently established that the petitioner was *bond fide* resident in England to entitle him to a decree. For the proposition, however, that something less than domicile is sufficient to give the English Courts jurisdiction to dissolve marriages, or for any other purpose connected with the *lex domicilii*, there was not until *Niboyet v. Niboyet* (*infra*) any English authority of weight,^(a) unless some expressions which fell from the Judge-Ordinary in *Yelverton v. Yelverton* (*b*) be relied on, and the decisions of the English Courts as to the validity of Scotch divorces founded on the theory of transient residence are directly opposed to such a principle. In *Manning v. Manning*,^(c) alluding to this very case, Lord Penzance said: "I shall forbear to discuss the questions whether there can or ought to be two sorts of domicile; whether a *bond fide* residence alone can in any sense be called a domicile, and whether the mere fact of residence ought or ought not to be sufficient to entitle a party to sue in this court. I will remark, in passing, that when the case has been reversed, and the Courts of this country have had to consider how far persons who are domiciled Englishmen shall be bound by the decree of a foreign Matrimonial Court, the strong tendency has been to repudiate the power of the foreign Court under such circumstances to dissolve an English marriage. It would be unfortunate if an opposite course should be followed

(a) It is obvious that such cases as *Warter v. Warter* (Times Law Rep. June 25, 1890), where the Court recognises the validity of a divorce pronounced by an Indian Court under the authority of an imperial statute, have nothing to do with the principle. By the Indian Divorce Act, 1869, jurisdiction in divorce is given "where the petitioner professes the Christian religion, and resides in India at the time of presenting the petition."

(b) 1 Sw. & Tr. 574; see also *Burton v. Burton*, 21 W. R. 648, and *infra*, p. 97.

(c) L. R. 2 P. & D. 223.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

English domicil of husband necessary.

Domicil necessary and sufficient to found jurisdiction for divorce;

by the Courts of this country, when they are determining to what extent they will entertain the matrimonial suits of foreigners." Lord Penzance was able to come to the conclusion in this case that there was not even the *bond fide* residence which had been held to be sufficient in *Brodie v. Brodie*,^(a) and dismissed the petition accordingly, so that no direct decision as to the soundness of the distinction was arrived at, but in the subsequent case of *Wilson v. Wilson*,^(b) the same judge expressed his opinion still more strongly on the subject. "Whether any residence in this country short of domicil, using that word in its ordinary sense, will give the Court jurisdiction over parties whose domicil is elsewhere, is a question upon which the authorities are not consistent. It is the strong inclination of my own opinion that the only fair and satisfactory rule to adopt on this matter of jurisdiction is to insist upon the parties in all cases referring their matrimonial differences to the Courts of the country in which they are domiciled. Different communities have different views and laws respecting matrimonial obligations, and a different estimate of the causes which should justify divorce. It is both just and reasonable, therefore, that the differences of married people should be adjusted in accordance with the laws of the community to which they belong, and dealt with by the tribunals which alone can administer those laws. An honest adherence to this principle, moreover, will preclude the scandal which arises when a man and woman are held to be man and wife in one country, and strangers in another. . . . It is not, however, necessary for me to decide on this occasion whether mere residence, short of domicil in this country, is sufficient to found the jurisdiction of this Court, because I have arrived at the conclusion that the petitioner was, at the commencement of this suit, domiciled in this country." In *Burton v. Burton*,^(c) the petition of the husband was dismissed on the ground that he was not even *bond fide* resident in England, just as in

(a) 2 Sw. & Tr. 259; 30 L. J. P. & M. 185.

(b) L. R. 2 P. & D. 435, 441.

(c) 21 W. R. 648.

Manning v. Manning,^(a) and it was therefore not necessary to decide whether any residence short of domicile would be sufficient to found the jurisdiction. It is true that the Judge-Ordinary (Sir J. Hannen) is reported in that case as saying that the jurisdiction would not attach until the husband had taken up his residence in England, but this cannot be taken as an authority by implication for the theory that residence not amounting to domicile would be sufficient in such cases. It may be mentioned that the contrary has, in fact, been held by the Supreme Court of Melbourne,^(b) after a careful review of most of the English cases, and the *dicta* of Lord Penzance in *Wilson v. Wilson*, to which attention has just been called, render it improbable that the theory suggested in *Burton v. Burton* ^(c) will be eventually established. It is quite clear, at any rate, that English domicile will be regarded as sufficient to confer jurisdiction,^(d) and it has been expressly decided in an Irish case^(e) that domicile without residence in fact will do for all such purposes. In *Tollemache v. Tollemache*,^(f) the Court decreed, at the prayer of the husband, a dissolution of a marriage contracted first in Scotland and afterwards in England. After the marriage the parties principally cohabited in Scotland, and the wife contended that a Scotch decree of divorce already made was valid, and that the Court had not jurisdiction. It was found, however, that the husband still retained his domicile of origin, which was English, and the Court decreed a divorce as prayed, holding that they could not recognise a Scotch divorce of a domiciled Englishman.

It being therefore established that the English Court will assume jurisdiction to dissolve a marriage, whether celebrated abroad or in England, if the matrimonial domicile at the time of the petition is English, it remains

but this essential has been dispensed with.

(a) L. R. 2 P. & D. 223.

(b) *Duggan v. Duggan*, reported in the *Law Times*, Dec. 29, 1877 at p. 152.

(c) 21 W. R. 648; see *Firebrace v. Firebrace*, 26 W. R. 617; *Deck v. Deck*, 2 Sw. & Tr. 90; *Bond v. Bond*, 2 Sw. & Tr. 93.

(d) *Ratcliff v. Ratcliff*, 29 L. J. P. & M. 171.

(e) *Gillis v. Gillis*, 8 Ir. R. Eq. 597.

(f) 1 Sw. & Tr. 557.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

Niboyet v.
Niboyet.

to notice more particularly the cases in which it has done so where this condition has not been complied with.

The case of *Niboyet v. Niboyet* (a) is in many respects the most remarkable of these instances; and if the decision in that case is to be followed generally, without reference to its peculiar facts, it is not the least important in its logical consequences. The marriage in *Niboyet v. Niboyet* had been contracted at Gibraltar between a Frenchman and an Englishwoman. The husband came to England (with his wife) as a consul for France, and therefore retained his French domicile of origin. The wife sued in the English court for divorce, on the ground of adultery and cruelty in England; and the Court of Appeal, reversing the decision of Sir Robert Phillimore in the court below, held that there was jurisdiction to entertain the suit. Lord Justice Brett (now Lord Esher, M.R.) dissented from the rest of the Court (James and Cotton, L.JJ.); so that the weight of authority was at least equally divided, and it is unfortunate that the case was not taken to the House of Lords. The ground of the decision of the majority appears to be "that the matrimonial home is English" (per James, L.J., at p. 9), and that the respondent was "resident in this country, not casually, but for several years" (per Cotton, L.J., at p. 21). Reading these judgments with that of Brett, L.J., who took the opposite view, and with the summary of the cases by Sir Robert Phillimore in the Court below, (b) it is difficult to resist the conclusion that the learned judges whose opinions prevailed were, in truth, more unwilling to admit that a French consul retained his domicile of origin than anxious to assert jurisdiction irrespective of domicile. It was not contested in the cause, and had been expressly affirmed by Sir R. Phillimore below, that the consular office of the respondent "incapacitated him from acquiring a domicile in this country." (c).

There is, no doubt, something pedantic and even

(a) 4 P. D. 1. (b) 3 P. D. 52, citing *Le Sueur v. Le Sueur*, 1 P. D. 139.
(c) 3 P. D. at p. 59; *supra*, p. 34.

irritating about such a rule; but if the rule is not disputed, its consequences must be accepted without evasion. Domicil is, or ought to be, the legal conception of residence; (a) and if the respondent in *Niboyet v. Niboyet* retained his French domicil, he did so for all purposes. The law had no business to regard him as resident in England at all. To admit that his "residence" in England, *quâ* consul, could not be domicil, and then to attribute to that "residence" all the consequences which domicil usually carries with it, was an essentially "insular" mode of recognising the existence of international law. It is not surprising to find Lord Selborne, in a later case, (b) speaking of *Niboyet v. Niboyet* as follows:—"Now, if that case was well decided, it is certainly not an authority in the appellant's favour. . . . Whether another country—the country of those parties (France, I think)—would have recognised that decision we need not at present inquire." Lord Blackburn, in the same case, expressly guarded himself against expressing any approval of *Niboyet v. Niboyet*; (c) whilst even Cotton, L.J. (one of the Lords Justices responsible for the judgment), appears afterwards to have felt the difficulty of harmonising it with private international law. (d) It is of course clear that, if an English statute expressly directs an English Court to disregard the rules of private international law, the Court must obey. But, "unless there be definite express terms to the contrary, a statute is to be interpreted as applicable and as intended to apply only to matters within the jurisdiction of the Legislature by which it is enacted." (e)

(a) Cf. *suprà*, p. 23. (b) *Harvey v. Farnie*, 8 App. Cas. 55, 56.

(c) At p. 60 of 8 App. Cas.: "There was a difference of opinion in that case, and I wish to express no opinion upon it one way or the other."

(d) "It may be said that our decision in *Niboyet v. Niboyet* was in some way at variance with what we are laying down in this case. . . . The decision . . . turned entirely upon the construction of an English Act of Parliament; and [we] said, whatever might have been the consequences independently of those words, this Act of Parliament gives to us, an English Court, jurisdiction in the matter, and says what is to be the consequence if certain facts are proved in a suit and brought before us under the Act. That was the *ratio decidendi* in that case": per Cotton, L.J., in *Harvey v. Farnie*, 6 P. D. at pp. 50, 51.

(e) Per Brett, L.J., 4 P. D. at p. 20.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

There can be little doubt that the judgment of the majority of the Court in *Niboyet v. Niboyet* is at variance with the general tenor of authority up to the date of that decision.^(a)

It remains to consider some other cases, of even less authority, in which jurisdiction without domicile has been assumed. In *Deck v. Deck* ^(b) the marriage was an English one, but the husband had since its celebration acquired an American domicile, where he committed adultery. The Court held that it had jurisdiction, and made the decree asked for by the wife, resting their decision on the two grounds that the words of the statute giving them jurisdiction to dissolve a marriage at the instance of the wife in such cases (20 & 21 Vict. c. 85, s. 27) were large enough to include the case before them, and that the respondent, though his domicile was America, was still a natural-born British subject, and could not shake off his allegiance. Having regard to the expressions of Lord Penzance in *Wilson v. Wilson*,^(c) quoted above, which agree with the almost unanimous views of foreign jurists, and to the view which the English Courts have taken of foreign divorces where the parties have been domiciled in England, it must be admitted that the decision in *Deck v. Deck* is an anomalous one, and it cannot be regarded as an accurate exposition of the present state of the law on the subject. In *Bond v. Bond* ^(d) it did not distinctly appear whether the respondent's domicile was Irish or not, and the Court therefore assumed the required jurisdiction, observing that the case was in

(a) In a recent case, *D'Etchegoyen v. D'Etchegoyen*, 13 P. D. 132, Sir J. Hannen held that domicile gave jurisdiction, and seems to have avoided saying that less than domicile would do so. In *Ingham v. Sachs*, 57 L. T. 920, Butt, J., appears to have followed the principle of *Niboyet v. Niboyet*, so far as to recognise the validity of a dissolution in Berlin of a marriage there contracted between a domiciled Austrian and a Prussian woman, apparently on the ground that the husband was *bond fide* resident in Berlin. It is, however, stated in the *Law Magazine and Review*, vol. xiii. p. 85, that the facts in this case were not fully disclosed to the Court, and that the residence in Berlin was "purely collusive."

(b) 2 Sw. & Tr. 90; 29 L. J. P. & M. 129.

(c) L. R. 2 P. & D. 441.

(d) 2 Sw. & Tr. 93.

substance the same as that of *Deck v. Deck*, which was decided on the same day. *Yelverton v. Yelverton* (a) was a suit by the wife for a restitution of conjugal rights, the place of the celebration of the marriage being Scotch and the domicil of the husband Irish, and the Court held that they had no jurisdiction, after a careful examination of the older cases on the subject. It was further held expressly in this case that the wife could not, as a married woman, acquire any domicil other than her husband's under any circumstances, but the latter *dicta* as to this have already been examined while treating of domicil, (b) and it may be now taken that either a judicial separation from or desertion by her husband will enable her to do so, (c) though it will not entitle her to sue for a divorce in her new *forum*. In *Callwell v. Callwell* (d) neither the place where the marriage had been contracted nor the domicil of the husband, who was the petitioner, was English, but the wife appeared, and so submitted to the jurisdiction of the Court. Had it not been for such submission, it does not appear that the decree which was made in that case could have been supported.

The result of the cases which have now been examined shows that, with the exception of *Niboyet v. Niboyet*, there is no authority worthy the name for saying that the English Court will dissolve any marriage where the parties are not domiciled in this country, even though it was contracted here. In *Sinonin v. Maillac* (e) the Court assumed jurisdiction to inquire into the validity of such a marriage *ab initio*, and refused a decree of nullity, though such a decree had been obtained in France, where the parties had been domiciled throughout. It is obvious, however, that such an inquiry belongs especially to the *forum loci contractus*, and it would be a very different thing for an

(a) 1 Sw. & Tr. 574.

(b) *Vide supra*, Chap. II.(c) *Le Sueur v. Le Sueur*, L. R. 1 P. D. 139; *Dolphin v. Robins*, 7 H. L. C. 390.(d) 3 Sw. & Tr. 259; so in *Zyclinski v. Zyclinski*, 2 Sw. & Tr. 420 *infra*.

(e) 29 L. J. P. & M. 97.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

English Court to assume to dissolve a marriage, for causes arising after its celebration, where the matrimonial domicile was foreign, merely on the ground that it had been originally celebrated in this country. The decisions, however, of the English Courts in cases where the circumstances have been reversed, and they have been called upon to consider the validity of divorces by decrees of foreign Courts where the matrimonial domicile has remained English, are all in point in considering the present question, and have already been discussed in their proper place. The words, however, of Lord Penzance in *Shaw v. Attorney-General* (a) are deserving of attention in connection with this subject. "No case," he says, "has ever yet decided that a man can, according to the laws of this country, be divorced from his wife by the tribunals of a country in which he has never had either domicile or residence. He has never submitted himself, either directly or inferentially, to the jurisdiction of such a court, and has never, by any act of his own, laid himself open to be affected by its process, if it never reaches him. A judgment so obtained has, therefore, in addition to the want of jurisdiction, the incurable vice of being contrary to natural justice, because the proceedings are *ex parte*, and take place in the absence of the party affected by them." And in accordance with this reasoning it has been held that if a husband whose jurisdiction is foreign appear unconditionally to a petition in the Divorce Court, and take a practical step in the cause, or by obtaining further time to answer, he cannot afterwards contest the jurisdiction, but must answer to the merits. Under such circumstances his proper course would have been to have appeared under protest.(b)

There appears to be no power to order service abroad of a petition for restitution of conjugal rights, although such service of petition for nullity, dissolution, judicial separa-

(a) L. R. 2 P. & D. 156.

(b) *Zyclinski v. Zyclinski*, 2 Sw. & Tr. 420; and see also *Callwell v. Callwell*, 3 Sw. & Tr. 259.

tion, or jactitation of marriage is provided for by 20 & 21
Vict. c. 85, ss. 41, 42.(a)

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. IV.

SUMMARY.

DISSOLUTION OF MARRIAGE.

Where a marriage has been celebrated in England, and the domicile of the parties is British, a foreign divorce pur- pp. 85-88.
porting to dissolve it will in no case be recognised.

When the parties to such a marriage were domiciled abroad at the time of its celebration, and the law of the p. 88.
same continuing domicile purports to divorce them, the divorce will be recognised as valid by an English Court.

The same principle would accord the same recognition p. 89.
to a foreign divorce granted by the law of the domicile, where the domicile of the parties had been English at the time of the marriage, and had been subsequently changed.

Where a marriage has been celebrated abroad, an English Court will assume jurisdiction to dissolve it if it pp. 90-93.
can be shown that the matrimonial domicile is English at the time of the application.

It is doubtful how far the jurisdiction will be asserted pp. 94-97.
in the absence of English domicile. In *Niboyet v. Niboyet* (b) it was held that residence not amounting to domicile was sufficient, but the case was one where the residence would have amounted to domicile but for the consular character of the husband. In *Brodie v. Brodie* (c) jurisdiction was assumed on "bona fide residence"; and in *Deck v. Deck* (d) on continuing British allegiance. The last case would probably not be followed. So, it would seem, the Court p. 97.
may exercise its jurisdiction, notwithstanding the want of an English domicile, if the respondent submit by appearance, and taking practical steps in the cause, though a former submission in another cause is not sufficient.

(a) *Chichester v. Chichester*, 10 P. D. 186; *Firebrace v. Firebrace*, 4 P. D. 63, 69. As to the jurisdiction of the Indian Courts, which does not depend upon domicile, see *Warter v. Warter*, Times Law Rep. June 25, 1890, and the Indian Divorce Act, 1869, s. 2.

(b) 4 P. D. 1.

(c) 2 Sw. & Tr. 259.

(d) 2 Sw. & Tr. 90.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

CHAPTER V.

ARTIFICIAL AND CONVENTIONAL PERSONS, INCLUDING FOREIGN
CORPORATIONS, STATES, SOVEREIGNS, AND AMBASSADORS.(i.) *Foreign Corporations.*Persons and
corporations

THE principle that laws are commands addressed to *persons*, which has been referred to above,^(a) renders it important to consider what entities come within that term. That corporations created by statute or charter of the British Crown are for most purposes "persons" within the contemplation of the law has long been decided;^(b) and Order LXXI. r. 1, of the Judicature Acts, 1873 and 1875, recognises the same principle by enacting that the word "person" shall, in the construction of the Judicature Rules, unless there is anything in the subject or context repugnant thereto, include a body corporate or politic. Postponing for the present the discussion of the rights and liabilities in an English court of independent sovereign States, which are clearly designated by the phrase "bodies politic," it will be useful to consider how far a corporation not created by British statute or charter may be considered as a body corporate or person, and in what respects its position in an English court may be regarded as peculiar.

Artificial
personality.

It is plainly only by a legal fiction that a corporate body, being an abstract and intangible creation of the law, can be regarded as a person at all. This has given rise to doubts whether the personality so created can or

(a) *Ante*, p. xiv.

(b) See authorities cited in Grant on Corporations, p. 4, n. (s).

ought to be recognised in the courts of any other Legislature than that which created it—whether, in fact, Great Britain or any other State has a right to create artificial persons which the Courts of other countries shall be bound to recognise. It is obviously only by a comity of nations, in the strictest sense of the word, that this recognition can be given. The courts of all countries are open *prima facie* to natural persons, and to no others; and an intangible body, which claims to possess a certain unity and individuality of its own by the law of a foreign State, cannot claim, as of right, to be treated, beyond the jurisdiction of that State, on the footing of an ordinary rational human being. Such recognition, in fact, could only be accorded between States whose systems of jurisprudence were characterised by the same general conceptions, and who had reached, approximately speaking, the same stage of civilisation. It would be impossible, unless these conditions were complied with, that the ordinary attributes of a person, such as domicile and capacity, could be consistently applied to these creations of a foreign law; and unless a foreign corporation which claimed our recognition was, by the law of the State which created it, substantially the same thing as a corporation created by statute or charter here, we should be unable to recognise it at all. (a) The principle that a foreign corporation may sue as plaintiff by its corporate name in an English court was decided as long ago as 1730 in *The Dutch West India Co. v. Van Moses* (b) and *Henriques v. Dutch West India Co.*, (c) the latter of which was an appeal against a judgment on a *scire facias* brought by the plaintiffs in the first action against the

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
Corporations.Right of a
foreign
corporation
to sue.

(a) *General Steam Navigation Co. v. Guillon*, 11 M. & W. 877; *Ingate v. Austrian Lloyd's*, 4 C. B. N. S. 704; 27 L. J. C. P. 323. It should be pointed out that in several instances conventions have been entered into between the British Government and certain foreign States, granting to companies and other commercial, industrial, and financial associations, reciprocal rights as to bringing or defending actions before the tribunals of the foreign contracting State. Such conventions have been made with France (1862), Belgium (1862), Italy (1862), and Germany (1874), and will be found set out in *Buckley on Companies*, 5th ed. pp. 674-676.

(b) 1 Str. 612.

(c) 2 Ld. Raym. 1532.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
Corporations.

bail of the defendant in that case. It was contended in argument for the appellants, that no recognisance in England could be given to this *Generalis privilegiata societas Belgica ad Indos Occidentales negotians*, inasmuch as the law of England did not take notice of any foreign corporation, nor could any foreign corporation in their corporate name and capacity maintain any action at common law in this kingdom. It was held, however, both by the King's Bench and the House of Lords, that the objection was untenable. In a note added by Lord Raymond to the report, it is said that the original action by the Dutch company, which was for money lent, &c., was tried at Nisi Prius before Lord King in 1734, when it appeared that the cause of action accrued in Holland. Lord Raymond proceeds: "Upon the trial, Lord Chancellor King told me he made the plaintiff give in evidence the proper instruments whereby by the law of Holland they were effectually created a corporation there. And after hearing the objections made by counsel, he directed the jury to find for the plaintiffs; who accordingly did, and gave them £13,720 damages; and afterwards a motion was made in the Common Pleas to set aside the verdict, but by the unanimous opinion of that Court the motion was denied." (a) This decision has been recognised and adopted in subsequent cases, (b) and the principle that a foreign corporation may sue as plaintiffs cannot therefore now be questioned. It must, however, be taken subject to the qualification already referred to, that the foreign corporation, so called, must be something with the constitution and attributes of a body incorporated by English law. It was answered in argument to Lord Abinger, who said that the Court did not know what a corporation meant in France, that it was enough if the body referred to had in France the same incidents and

(a) 2 Ld. Raym. 1535.

(b) *South Carolina Bank v. Case*, 8 B. & C. 427; *National Bank of St. Charles v. De Bernales*, Ry. & M.N.P.C. 190; *Newby v. Colt's Patent Firearms Co.*, L.R. 7 Q.B. 293; *Scott v. Royal Wax Candle Co.*, L.R. 1 Q.B.D. 404; *Westman v. A. E. Snickarefabrik*, L.R. 1 Ex. D. 237.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
Corporations.*

immunities as a corporation in England.(a) So Byles, J., says: "I doubted, and I still doubt, whether s. 16 (of the Common Law Procedure Act, 1852) can apply to a foreign corporation trading abroad. We have no means of knowing the constitution and attributes of such a body. It may be altogether different from our incorporated companies." (b) In the case last cited, the statute referred to was held not to have been intended to apply to foreign corporations; but the decision must be regarded as open to suspicion, having been questioned by Quain, J., in the later case of *Scott v. Royal Wax Candle Co.*(c) And it will be seen that in later cases the applicability to foreign corporations of Order IX. r. 8 (Judicature Acts), which is practically a re-enactment of the section above mentioned, has been fully recognised.(d) But the principle does not extend to foreign *partnerships*.(e)

Liability of
a foreign
corporation
to be sued.

The principle that foreign corporations might be recognised when suing as plaintiffs was not extended to their appearance as defendants until a considerably later date. It was pointed out by Williams, J., in *Ingate v. Austrian Lloyd's*.(f) that there was then (1858) no precedent for admitting foreign corporations to defend an action at law in their corporate capacity; but they had certainly been treated as defendants in the Courts of Chancery, and in *Carron Iron Co. v. Maclaren* (g) an injunction was granted by the Master of the Rolls against a Scotch, *i.e.*, a foreign, corporation. In the latter case, though objection was taken to the sufficiency of the service, and the presence of the company within the jurisdiction was

(a) *General Steam Navigation Co. v. Guillon*, 11 M. & W. 877, 889.

(b) *Ingate v. Austrian Lloyd's*, 4 C. B. N. S. 704. Cf. the judgments in *Colquhoun v. Heddon*, 24 Q. B. D. 491; 59 L. J. Q. B. 142.

(c) L. R. 1 Q. B. D. 404, at p. 409; and see per Bramwell, B., *Westman v. A. E. Snickarefabrik*, L. R. 1 Ex. D. 237, 240.

(d) *Scott v. Royal Wax Candle Co.* (ante), and *Mason v. Comptoir d'Escompte de Paris*, *infra*.

(e) *Russell v. Cambefort*, W. N. 1889, p. 139.

(f) 4 C. B. N. S. 704, 709.

(g) 5 H. L. C. 416 (1855); so service ordered by Court of Chancery on an Irish corporation in *Lewis v. Baldwin*, 11 Beav. 153; see *Maclaren v. Stanton*, 16 Beav. 285.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
Corporations.

denied, it was not contended that an English Court was incompetent to treat a foreign corporation as defendants, if proper service of the writ was effected upon them. It was not, however, directly held that it was competent to do so until *Newby v. Van Oppen*.^(a) "It is true that we are not aware," said Blackburn, J., "of any reported case in which a foreign corporation has been sued in a court of law; but it seems to follow, from their being permitted to sue as plaintiffs, that they must be suable as defendants. It is, however, enough to say that we will not on this ground prevent the plaintiff from proceeding. The corporation may, if so advised, raise the question after appearing on the record." It should be remarked that, in this case, the defendant corporation was *de facto* carrying on business in England, though it does not appear that this fact was relied upon in the judgment on the question whether the action was maintainable. So it has been held, since the passing of the Judicature Acts, that the provisions in the schedule to these Acts for service of writs of summons or notice thereof out of the jurisdiction apply to actions against a foreign corporation resident out of the jurisdiction.^(b) "The language of Order XI. r. 1," said Cockburn, C.J., "appears to me large enough to include foreign corporations, and to be as applicable to them as to foreign subjects." "There is nothing in the language of the order," said Quain, J., "to sanction our making any difference between a foreign subject and a foreign corporation—between a natural person and an artificial person—in respect of service, and there is no reason in the nature of things why we should. With regard to the decision in *Ingate v. Austrian Lloyd's*,^(c) that s. 19 of the Common Law Procedure Act, 1852, did not apply to a foreign corporation, I should like to have that decision reconsidered if it were neces-

(a) L. R. 7 Q. B. 293. Recently the same principle has been recognised in *Mason v. Comptoir d'Escompte de Paris* and *Haggin v. Same*, W. N. 1889, p. 129. See *infra*.

(b) *Scott v. Royal Wax Candle Co.*, L. R. 1 Q. B. D. 404.

(c) 4 C. B. N. S. 704; 27 L. J. C. P. 323.

sary." It has been decided, however, that notice of the writ of summons must be served, service of the writ itself having been set aside by the Exchequer Division of the High Court.(a) "I am of opinion," said Bramwell, B., in the case last cited, "that we ought not to set aside the order permitting the issue of the writ, *because a foreign corporation is suable in this country*, and so a writ may lie against it." It can hardly be said without arguing in a circle, so far as this particular judgment is concerned, that it must be inferred that a foreign corporation is suable here because the Legislature has made provisions for serving notice of writs which have been construed as applicable to them; but that reasoning is quite consistent with the decision of the Queen's Bench Division in *Scott v. Royal Wax Candle Co.*,(b) and with the admitted right of the Court of Chancery to order service on a foreign corporation out of the jurisdiction, prior to the passing of the Judicature Acts.

It has been said that Blackburn, J., in *Newby v. Van Oppen*,(c) affirmed the abstract proposition that a foreign corporation is suable in England. In that case the foreign corporation had a branch office and carried on business in England, and it was further held that service in such a case must be on a clerk or officer in the nature of a head officer, whose knowledge would be the knowledge of the corporation,(d) in accordance with the English common law rule, re-enacted by statute, as to the proper service of a writ upon a corporation aggregate. It was with reference to this point alone that the subsequent case of *Mackereth v. Glasgow and South-Western Railway Co.*(e) was decided, and the question of the liability of a foreign corporation to be sued at all does not therefore seem to be affected by it. The defendants in that case were a Scotch corporation, with running powers over an English railway to Carlisle,

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
Corporations.*

Service of
writ or notice
on foreign
corporation.

(a) *Westman v. A. E. Snickarefabrik*, L. R. 1 Ex. D. 237.

(b) L. R. 1 Q. B. D. 240.

(c) L. R. 7 Q. B. 293.

(d) See Tidd's Practice, ed. 1828, p. 121; 2 Will. IV. c. 39, s. 13; 15 & 16 Vict. c. 76, s. 16.

(e) L. R. 8 Ex. 149.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
Corporations.*

and their only officer in England, upon whom the writ was served, was a booking-clerk at Carlisle, whose sole duty it was to issue tickets to travellers. It was held, that the booking-clerk was not a head officer or clerk of the defendants upon whom service of the writ could properly be made, and that the defendants did not in any sense reside or carry on business (a) at Carlisle, so as to come within s. 16 of the Common Law Procedure Act, 1852 (15 & 16 Vict. c. 76). According to the decisions under the Judicature Acts which have been already cited, (b) the proper course under similar circumstances would be to obtain leave, under Order II. r. 4, Order XI. r. 1, of the schedule to the Judicature Acts, to issue a writ against the defendants, and to serve them with notice of such writ out of the jurisdiction, *i.e.*, on their head officer at their Scotch head office. The general principle that a foreign corporation is suable in England, subject to the ordinary rules of English procedure as to effecting service, is in no way impaired by the judgment in *Mackereth v. Glasgow and South-Western Railway Co.*; nor is there in reality anything hostile to it in *Carron Iron Co. v. Maclaren*, (c) which was relied on in argument. All that was decided in the latter case on this point was that an alleged agent of the company in England was not an agent for the purpose of being served with notice of an injunction; and that unless the defendants were either resident in England or were sued in respect of acts or property in England, an injunction of the English Court of Chancery ought not to be enforced. No difference was in fact made between the position of a Scotch corporation and a Scotch domiciled subject; and the distinction between a natural person and an artificial person created by a foreign law, was not referred to. That there is no such distinction for this

(a) As to the meaning of the words "carry on business," see *Shiels v. Great Northern Ry. Co.*, 30 L. J. Q. B. 331; *Garton v. Great Western Ry. Co.*, 1 E. & E. 258; 28 L. J. Q. B. 103.

(b) *Westman v. A. E. Snickarefabrik*, L. R. 1 Ex. D. 237; *Scott v. Royal Wax Candle Co.*, L. R. 1 Q. B. D. 240.

(c) 5 H. L. C. 416, 458.

purpose appears from a more recent case, where it was held that the exceptional privileges as to jurisdiction conferred on Scotchmen and Irishmen, domiciled or ordinarily resident in Scotland or Ireland (under the Judicature Rules), are applicable to corporations as to individuals.(a)

PART I.
PERSONS.
CAP. V.

Foreign
Corporations.

In two cases which were very recently before the Court of Appeal (b) the principle that a foreign corporation may be sued in England, and that the writ may be served here upon the manager of the London agency, was fully recognised. Such manager must, however, be a "head officer" within the meaning of Order IX. r. 8 (Judicature Acts), and a mere agent with an office of his own in England will not do.(c) The result of these cases appears to be that it is a question of fact whether the office is the office of the foreign corporation, and the agent a "head officer," so as to admit of service. But though a corporation may thus be regarded as resident in England, and perhaps in other places at the same time, for the purposes of jurisdiction, this does not apply to partnerships, which have no corporate existence apart from the individuals composing them. Accordingly, a foreign partnership, the members of which are foreigners resident out of the jurisdiction, but carrying on business in this country, cannot be served under Order IX. r. 6, by service on the manager at their principal place of business within the jurisdiction.(d)

The position of foreign corporations as ordinary litigants having been determined, it is next desirable to consider how far they can be affected by special statutory regulations for their liquidation or control. To what extent the compulsory provisions of the Companies Act,

Foreign
corporations
—how far
controlled by
the Companies
Act.

(a) *Watkins v. Scottish Imperial Insurance Co.*, 23 Q. B. D. 285.

(b) *Mason v. Comptoir d'Escompte de Paris*, *Haggin v. Same*, 23 Q. B. D. 519.

(c) *Nutter v. Messageries Maritimes*, 54 L. J. Q. B. 527.

(d) *Russell v. Cambefort*, 23 Q. B. D. (C. A.) 526, overruling *O'Neil v. Clason*, 46 L. J. Q. B. 191, and *dicta* of A. L. Smith, J., in *Pollexfen v. Gibson*, 16 Q. B. D. 792. For another instance of service on a foreign corporation with a "head officer" in England, see *Lhoneux v. Hong Kong Banking Co.*, 33 Ch. D. 446.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
Corporations.*

1862, for winding up companies apply to such cases is not strictly a matter of private international law, and has been regarded rather by English Courts as a question of the intention of the English Legislature. The principle of their applicability was first accepted with regard to companies created by a subordinate jurisdiction of the British Empire. Thus, a winding-up order was made against an Indian corporation having a branch office and agent in England.^(a) In a similar case it was apparently assumed that a like order could have been made under the 11 & 12 Vict. c. 45, but the application was refused on the ground of its inexpediency.^(b) But with regard to strictly foreign associations, considerable doubt as to the jurisdiction has been expressed. "Their lordships are clearly of opinion," said James, L.J., in another case,^(c) "that the Companies Act, 1862, never contemplated that a foreign partnership, actually complete and existing in a foreign country, could be brought within the purview of the English Act of Parliament, the English Legislature having no power over the shareholders of such a company." It was accordingly held, that the Consular Court in Egypt could not issue a sequestration against such of the members of a railway company and partnership in Egypt as were resident within its jurisdiction, for not complying with an order of that Court to register the company as one of limited liability under the Companies Act, 1862. The order, however, was obviously ineffectual for other reasons, being merely addressed to the only two members of the committee of the railway company who resided within the jurisdiction of the Court, and who had no other claim to represent the partnership. Nor is a process purporting to compel the registration of an existing company the same in principle as a winding-up order, whether the company affected be already registered under the English statute or not. The "limited character" of a foreign corporation will be recognised in England, although it is not so

(a) *In re Commercial Bank of India*, L. R. 6 Eq. 517.

(b) *In re Union Bank of Calcutta*, 3 De G. & S. 253.

(c) *Bulkeley v. Schultz*, L. R. 3 P. C. 764, 769.

registered under the Companies Act,(a) which was said in the case cited to be only intended for domestic corporations. But any association which contemplates the management of, or any carrying on of, business here may be so registered though consisting entirely of foreigners resident abroad, and though the principal business may be intended to be carried on abroad also.(b) It is sufficient, if any business is to be carried on in any part of the United Kingdom.(c) It would appear that this condition must be satisfied in order to obtain registration,(d) but it may perhaps be doubted whether in practice registration even in such a case would be refused.(e) And it is quite clear, that if a foreign association is once registered under the Act, a winding-up order can be made against it, though circumstances can easily be imagined under which it would be difficult for it to take effect.(f)

PART I.
PERSONS.
CAP. V.

Foreign
Corporations.

The jurisdiction to make a winding-up order, however, has more recently been asserted in cases where no registration under the English statute has been effected. Thus an order has been made in the case of a New Zealand company, formed and having its principal place of business abroad, but having a branch office, agent, and assets in England.(g) Nor does the pendency of a foreign liquidation affect the jurisdiction, although, in making such order the Court will, as a matter of comity, have regard to the order of the foreign Court.(v) But there is no jurisdiction to make a winding-up order in the case of a foreign company which, though it has carried on business in England by agents, yet has no branch office or "residence

(a) *Bateman v. Service*, 6 App. Cas. 386.

(b) *General Co. for Promotion of Land Credit, Reuss v. Bos*, L. R. 5 Ch. 363; S. C. 5 H. L. (L. R.) 176.

(c) *In re International Pulp, &c., Co.*, 3 Ch. D. 594, 597.

(d) *In re Union Bank of Calcutta*, 19 L. J. Ch. 388; 5 De G. & S. 253.

(e) See, however, the language of James, L.J., in *Bulkeley v. Schultz*, L. R. 3 P. C. 764.

(f) *Re Tumacacori Mining Co.*, L. R. 17 Eq. 534, 540; *Reuss v. Bos*, L. R. 5 H. L. 176; *Re Factage Parisien*, 34 L. J. Ch. 140; *Re Madrid, &c., Railway Co.*, 3 De G. & Sm. 127; 2 Macn. & G. 169.

(g) *In re Matheson Brothers, Limited*, 27 Ch. D. 225, following *In re Commercial Bank of India*, L. R. 6 Eq. 517.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
Corporations.

of its own" there.(a) The meaning of "having regard, as a matter of comity, to the order of the foreign Court" is better developed in a later case,(b) where North, J., said: "I think the winding up here will be auxiliary to the winding up in Australia, and, if I have the control of the proceedings here, I will take care that there shall be no conflict between the two Courts." No distinction has in these later cases been taken between associations created by a subordinate jurisdiction, and associations of a strictly foreign character; but it will be observed that only one instance of the latter class has been cited, and in that the winding-up order was refused on the ground that the condition of a branch office in England was not complied with.(c)

Where a winding-up order has been made, actions, not only in England, but in all other parts of the United Kingdom, will be restrained, subject to any advantage by priority already gained (d) under ss. 87, 122, of the Companies Act. From the language of Jessel, M.R., in *Re International Pulp, &c., Co. (infra)*, it would appear that the only reason why a strictly foreign action cannot be restrained under the same sections is the want of jurisdiction to control it. This would seem to imply that a foreign plaintiff coming in as a creditor under the English winding up can be restrained, as a condition of relief here; nor does it appear that there would be any distinction for this purpose between a winding up and an ordinary bankruptcy. On analogous principles, an injunction has been granted against a Scotch solicitor, agent in Scotland of the official liquidator in England, from attaching assets in Scotland to pay his costs, although evidence was given that the Scotch law allowed the remedy he had adopted.

(a) *In re Lloyd Generale Italiano*, 29 Ch. D. 219. Cf. *Bulkeley v. Schultz*, L. R. 3 P. C. 764, 769.

(b) *In re Commercial Bank of S. Australia*, 33 Ch. D. 174.

(c) *In re Lloyd Generale Italiano*, 29 Ch. D. 219.

(d) *In re Queensland Merc. Agency Co., Ex parte Australian Investment Co.*, W. N. 1888, p. 62; *In re International Pulp, &c., Co.*, 3 Ch. D. 594, 599.

It was held that he was in the same position as an English agent would have been in England, and that his proper remedy was in the liquidation.^(a)

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
Corporations.

The applicability of English statutes to foreign companies or corporations not strictly constituted by English law has been also considered from the point of view of revenue legislation. The extension into Great Britain of the business of several large American insurance companies has given rise to a question how far persons insured with them are entitled to deduct the amount of their annual premiums from their income-tax returns, under the statutory privileges conferred by 16 & 17 Vict. c. 34, s. 54, and 16 & 17 Vict. c. 91. By the language of the last-mentioned Act, the privilege was confined to persons insured "in or with any insurance company existing on the 1st of November 1844, or in or with any insurance company registered pursuant to the Act 7 & 8 Vict. c. 110." In *Colquhoun v. Heddon* ^(b) the question arose with reference to an American insurance company which existed—in America—before November 1844; and it was held that the statutory privilege did not apply—*i.e.*, that the words "any insurance company existing," &c., did not extend to American companies. The principal ground of the decision was that the Registration Act referred to (7 & 8 Vict. c. 110) appeared to be confined to English companies, and that the 1st of November 1844 was the date on which it came into practical operation. The Court of Appeal have affirmed the decision (Fry, L.J., *dubitante*), holding that the reference in the Act to the month of November 1844, taken in conjunction with the terms of 7 & 8 Vict. c. 110, was enough to show that foreign companies were not intended to be included. On the general question, whether the words "any existing company" in an English statute extended or not *prima facie* to foreign companies, Lord Esher said that an Act,

(a) *In re Herman Loog, Limited*, 36 Ch. D. 502.

(b) *Colquhoun v. Heddon*, 24 Q. B. D. 491; 59 L. J. Q. B. 142; affirmed on appeal, 38 W. R. 548.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
Corporations.*

unless expressly so intended, ought not to be supposed to deal, directly or indirectly, with any person outside the jurisdiction of Parliament. Lord Justice Fry dissented from this view; and said, in effect, that the words would *prima facie* include foreign corporations, unless by so reading them they proposed to do anything in violation of the comity of nations. The latter view appears to be more in accordance with theory. Legislation deals with persons, natural or artificial, not on the view that they are in fact within the jurisdiction, but on the view that they may subsequently come within it. The mere *passing* of an Act, in ordinary cases, affects nobody. It is the *operation* of an Act which affects persons; and an Act operates from time to time on the persons who are or have become subject to it. An Act which provides for the future with respect to insurance companies, has as good a right to legislate for foreign companies, which may subsequently carry on business in England, as for English companies, which do so at the date of its commencement."

Domicil of
corporations.

It has already appeared that corporations are regarded as persons capable of "residence" beyond the territorial limits of the State by whose Legislature they were created, and it therefore becomes of interest to consider how far they are considered as possessed of domicil, and by what rules that domicil is governed. A corporation being in fact a mere intangible creature of the law, its domicil must be, as Westlake puts it,^(a) a notional conception only, introduced for purposes of jurisdiction and law. It is commonly supposed that a company resides where it has its central office for the transaction of its business; and certainly, when it is also registered under and created by the laws of that jurisdiction, it must be regarded as having its domicil there, if anywhere. The question then arises, whether a corporation can in any case have two domicils?—as, for example, when it has its head office for the transaction of business in one State, and is registered under the

(a) Westlake, P. I. L. § 55.

statutes of another; or when it has important offices, and carries on distinct business within each jurisdiction. In *The Carron Iron Co. v. Maclaren* (a) an injunction had been obtained against a Scotch corporation, restraining it from taking certain proceedings in Scotland, and notice of the injunction was served both on the company's agent in London, and on the manager in Scotland. The company did not appear, and the injunction was afterwards dissolved on their motion. Lord Cranworth laid down that there was no rule or principle of the Court of Chancery which, after a decree for administering a testator's assets (which was the case under discussion), would induce it to interfere with a foreign creditor resident abroad, suing for his debt in the courts of his own country, and that over such a creditor the Courts here could exercise no jurisdiction whatever. This was in effect an enunciation of the principle that a person domiciled abroad is not justiciable to the order of an English Court, except in respect of acts done or to be done in England, or in respect of property locally situate in England. (b) It was then further laid down that on the facts the Carron Iron Company, so far as they could be said to have any locality at all, must be considered as a body "locally situate" in Scotland; and that the fact that they had property in England, and a resident agent for the sale of their goods, though it might enable the Court to make its injunction effectual, could not justify its issue. The company was therefore regarded as having its domicile in Scotland, but it was not directly laid down that it might not have been also regarded as domiciled in England, if the facts had warranted such a view. It was said, indeed, by Lord St. Leonards, who dissented from Lord Brougham and Lord Cranworth in the House of Lords, that it might. "This company, I think, may properly be deemed both Scotch and English. It may, for the purposes of jurisdiction, be deemed to have two

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
Corporations.

(a) 5 H. L. C. 416; S. C. *sub nom. Maclaren v. Stainton*, 16 Beav. 279. Followed in *In re Boyse, Crofton v. Crofton*, 49 L. J. Ch. 689.

(b) Story, §§ 539, 540; Westlake, P. I. L. § 127.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
Corporations.

domicils. Its business is necessarily carried on by agents, and I do not know why its domicile should be considered to be confined to the place where the goods are manufactured. The business transacted in England is very extensive. The places of business may, for the purposes of jurisdiction, be properly deemed the domicile."^(a) It is to be observed that the *dicta* of Lord St. Leonards do not go the length of saying that a corporation may have two domicils for any purposes except those of jurisdiction, and the peculiar nature of the jurisdiction claimed should also be remembered. It will be seen in its proper place ^(b) that mere transient residence within the jurisdiction, coming far short of domicile, will be held to justify an English Court in acting *in personam*, when there is any equity affecting the person in relation to an act done or to be done, or to property locally situate in England. This sort of domiciliary residence, for the purpose of founding jurisdiction, is in fact the same condition as that which it has been already shown is required for the purpose of making a winding-up order against a non-registered foreign company. Such a winding-up order is refused where the company has no branch office, or "residence of its own," in this country.^(c)

Residence of
corporations.

It is seldom, in fact, that the *domicil* of a corporation, strictly speaking, can come in question. The cases in which the test of domicile is usually applied are those which arise on questions of marriage, divorce, legitimacy, and succession; matters in which no legislation can give the so-called person of a corporation the power of partaking. What is most commonly disputed is the applicability or non-applicability of certain statutes which use the words "residence" or "carrying on business," to the facts proved with regard to a foreign corporation; and

(a) 5 H. L. C. 416, 449. It is probably to this view of double or multiple domicile, for the purposes of jurisdiction, that Cotton, L.J., refers in *Haggin v. Comptoir d'Escompte de Paris*, W. N. 1889, p. 129. The theory does not extend to a foreign partnership: *Russell v. Cambefort*, 23 Q. B. D. 526.

(b) *Infra*, Chaps. VI. (i.), VII. (i.), VIII. (i.).

(c) *In re Lloyd Generale Italiano*, 29 Ch. D. 219.

between these cases and those which turn on domicile proper there is a narrow but well-defined line to be drawn. Residence itself is, of course, a phrase not strictly applicable to a corporation. Its use, in the words of Huddleston, B.,^(a) is founded upon the habits of a natural man, and is therefore inapplicable to the artificial and legal person to which the name corporation is given by the law. Nevertheless, as residence has been appointed for some purposes as the test of a trader's liability to the jurisdiction of the Crown, and as a corporation can undoubtedly trade, it has become necessary to determine how far a corporation can reside. By schedule D. to the 2nd section of 16 & 17 Vict. c. 34, duties are granted to the Crown (*inter alia*) "in respect of the annual profits or gains arising or accruing to any person residing within the United Kingdom from any profession, trade, employment, or vocation, whether the same shall be carried on in the United Kingdom or elsewhere." By s. 5 of the same statute, and by 5 & 6 Vict. c. 35, s. 40, the word "person," as used here, includes "corporation" or "joint-stock company." The residence of a corporation within the United Kingdom is therefore made a conclusive test of its liability to pay income tax in respect of the whole of its yearly gains, wherever made.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
Corporations.

Residence of
corporations.

The cases that have been decided on the question of the "residence" of a corporation within the United Kingdom, for these purposes, by no means support the *dicta* of Lord St. Leonards in *The Carron Iron Company v. Maclaren*,^(b) just referred to, as to the possibility of a company having a double residence or domicile. In *The Attorney-General v. Alexander*, the question was as to the liability under the section of the Income Tax Acts, cited above, of the Imperial Ottoman Bank. It was proved that the bank was a corporation created by Turkish law, and had its seat fixed, by the concession and the statutes which constituted it, at Constantinople, with power to

(a) *Cesena Sulphur Co. v. Nicholson*, L. R. 1 Ex. D. 428, 452.

(b) 5 H. L. 416, 449.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
Corporations.*Residence of
corporations.

establish branches and agencies at other places. It was the State bank of Turkey, where it was a bank of issue, and was charged with the collection of the revenue, and with certain operations relating to the currency, and with the payment of interest on the public debt, and received from the State a subsidy on account of the business transacted by it. On its creation it took over and continued to carry on the business of an English bank in London; and, since its creation, the annual meetings of shareholders had always been held, and dividends declared, in London; though the statutes permitted the annual meetings to be held at any place which the committee of management might fix. It was held that the bank must be regarded as residing at Constantinople alone, where it had its seat, and not in London, and that it was consequently only liable to pay income tax on the profits made by it in England. "We have to deal with this question," said Cleasby, B., "merely upon the words 'any person residing in the United Kingdom.' Now, if residence could not be predicated of a corporation, if the idea were not applicable to a corporation under this Act of Parliament, then, of course, the first branch of the schedule could not apply. The argument is not put on that ground; and we have to consider whether it is made out, not only that the word 'person' is fulfilled by this body, which is a corporation, but whether the terms 'residing within the United Kingdom' are also satisfied. . . . It appears to me sufficient to say that, looking at the constitution of the Imperial Ottoman Bank, we can see it did not carry on business in England in such a sense that we should be justified in saying it resided here. . . . It is not made out that the bank is resident in England, or is even carrying on its business here, though *some* of its business is carried on here." (a) "It was contended at first," said Amphlett, B., in the same case, "that a person carrying on business in London or elsewhere might be said to reside where he was carrying on business; so that, if he had two or three establish-

(a) L. R. 10 Ex. 32.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
Corporations.*Residence of
corporations.

ments in different countries, he might be said to reside in any of those countries. . . . But this was abandoned as untenable; (a) and if that is so, if an individual cannot be said to reside wherever he carries on his business, how can a foreign corporation be said to reside within the kingdom for no other reason than that it carries on business there? It must follow the same rule. What, then, is the reasonable meaning of a corporation residing anywhere? It appears to me that it is this: that a corporation may be said to reside wherever it has its seat." (b)

The principle of these judgments is confirmed by the later decision in the analogous case of *The Cesena Sulphur Company v. Nicholson*, (c) which depended upon the same statute. Both in that case and in the instance of *The Calcutta Jute Mills Company*, which was argued at the same time, the corporation in question was incorporated under the English statutes (the Companies Acts, 1862 and 1867), with a board of directors who met in England, where the head office was situated. In both cases the profits were exclusively earned abroad, where the whole of the practical business was carried on; and in both cases it was decided that the company was resident in England, and must pay income tax upon the whole amount of its profits, wherever earned. (d) The decision of Kelly, C.B., was based upon the ground that, whether there might or might not be more than one place at which the same corporation or joint-stock company resided, a joint-stock company did at any rate reside where its place of incorporation was, where the meetings of the whole company, or those who represented it, were held, and where its governing body met in bodily presence for the purposes of the company, and exercised the powers conferred upon

(a) *Sulley v. Attorney-General*, 5 H. & N. 711; 29 L. J. Ex. 464.

(b) L. R. 10 Ex. 20, 33.

(c) L. R. 1 Ex. D. 428.

(d) Income tax is further payable upon the whole amount of the annual profits, whether such profits are or are not remitted to this country for distribution among shareholders: *Imperial Continental Gas Association v. Nicholson*, 37 L. T. 717.

PART I.
PERSONS.
CAP. V.
<i>Foreign</i>
<i>Corporations.</i>
Residence of
corporations.

it by statute and by the articles of association. "The use of the word 'residence,'" said Huddleston, B.,^(a) "is founded upon the habits of a natural man, and is therefore inapplicable to the artificial and legal person whom we call a corporation. But for the purpose of giving effect to the words of the Legislature an artificial residence must be assigned to this artificial person, and one formed on the analogy of natural persons. . . . I do not think that the principle of law is really disputed, that the artificial residence which must be assigned to the artificial person is the place where the real business is carried on." It will be seen that though Kelly, C.B., guarded himself from being supposed to lay down that a corporation could have but one residence, the language just cited is not limited by a similar restriction, and points strongly to that proposition. The language of Amphlett, B., in *The Attorney-General v. Alexander* is, as has been already pointed out, even more decided. It is obvious that if the artificial residence which is attributed to an artificial person is to be analogous to the natural residence attributed to a natural person, the analogy must be carried out consistently. The birth-place of a natural individual is not conclusive evidence of his domicile or his residence. It is *prima facie* evidence of his domicile of origin, and his domicile of origin is *prima facie* his actual domicile and residence *de facto*. He may be a man who once resided in one country, and now resides in another, but he can only be residing in one country at the time the inquiry is made.^(b) So in the case of an artificial person, incorporation and registration are or should be merely facts to be taken into consideration in determining the locality of the artificial residence which is to be attributed to the corporation. *Prima facie* they show where it resides; but if it is established that the seat of its business is elsewhere,

(a) *Cesena Sulphur Co. v. Nicholson*, L. R. 1 Ex. D. 428, 452, 454.

(b) Story, § 45 a; Westlake, § 316; *Somerville v. Somerville*, 5 Ves. 786. This does not apply to mercantile domicile in time of war: *The Jonge Klasina*, 5 C. Rob. 297.

that it has in fact left its birth-place, those circumstances are no more conclusive than is the circumstance of birth in the case of the natural individual.(a) Further, just as a natural person must be pronounced, for the purposes of domicil, to be resident in some one place more than in any other, however nicely balanced the evidence may be, so a corporation should be regarded as necessarily having its seat or centre of operations (*der Mittelpunkt des Geschäftes—le centre de l'entreprise*) in some one spot to the exclusion of all others. It may be difficult to decide between two or more places whose claims appear conflicting, but it appears to be the duty of the law to pronounce between them, and to declare that in fact as well as in law one establishment is the centre where the corporation resides, while the other establishments are merely branch offices or agencies.

PART I.
PERSONS.
CAP. V.

Foreign
Corporations.

Residence of
corporations.

The seat of a corporation being therefore the place where the business is carried on, the English decisions on those statutes which make it necessary, for the purposes of county court jurisdiction, to determine where the place of business of the plaintiff or defendant is carried on,(b) will afford some assistance in answering the question in individual cases. Thus it has been held that the place of business of a lime, cement, brick, and manure company was at their works in Somersetshire, where the lime, &c., was made, sold, and delivered, and not in London, where the registered office was situate and the meetings of the directors had been held;(c) that a registered company does not "carry on its business" where an agent sells its goods in his own name;(d) that the Great Western Railway Company carried on its business at Paddington, the London and North-Western Railway Company at Euston Square, and the Great Northern Railway Company at

(a) *Cesena Sulphur Co. v. Nicholson*, L. R. 1 Ex. D. 428, 453.

(b) *Taylor v. Orowland Gas and Coke Co.*, 11 Ex. 1; 24 L. J. Ex. 233.

(c) *Keynsham Blue Lias Lime Co. v. Baker*, 33 L. J. Ex. 41. But see *Cesena Sulphur Co. v. Nicholson*, L. R. 1 Ex. D. 428, cited above, with which this case appears scarcely consistent.

(d) *Oldham Building, &c., Co. v. Heald*, 33 L. J. Ex. 236.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
Corporations.*Residence of
corporations.

King's Cross, and not at the minor stations on the line; (a) and that the seat of the business of a promenade pier company was in London, where the registered office was situate and the general business transacted, although the pier, the erection and maintenance of which were the sole objects of the company's existence, and from which the whole revenue of the company was derived, was situate at Aberystwith in Wales. (b) And a railway company incorporated under a private Act of the British Parliament for the purpose of making a railway in Ireland, with an office in Westminster for the transaction of business, and no property or effects in Ireland, was held to be a foreign corporation so as to be bound to give security for costs when suing in England. (c) Whether these decisions are all strictly in concord is not so important as the general conclusion to which they point, that the question where a corporation resides, dwells, has its seat, or carries on its business is one and the same question of fact, depending for its answer, as does the question of domicile in the case of an individual, upon a review of all the circumstances of the particular case. Notwithstanding certain ambiguous expressions in the case of *The Carron Iron Company v. Maclaren*, (d) which have been already referred to, it seems probable that this sort of residence is the nearest approach to the domicile of an individual of which the artificial person called a corporation is capable.

The idea of domicile "by election," which is occasionally introduced into French contracts, is relevant in this connection; but it is hardly more than a figure of speech. A corporation, like an individual, may contract that it shall be dealt with as if it were domiciled in any specified country, or that it will submit to any specified jurisdiction. Having so contracted, it will be held to its agree-

(a) *Adams v. Great Western Ry. Co.*, 30 L. J. Ex. 124; 6 H. & N. 404; *Brown v. London and North-Western Ry. Co.*, 32 L. J. Q. B. 318; 4 B. & S. 326; *Shiels v. Great Northern Ry. Co.*, 30 L. J. Q. B. 331.

(b) *Aberystwith Promenade Pier Co. v. Cooper*, 35 L. J. Q. B. 44.

(c) *Kilkenny, dc., Ry. Co. v. Feilden*, 6 Ex. 81; 20 L. J. Ex. 141; *Edinburgh and Leith Ry. Co. v. Dawson*, 7 Dowl. 573.

(d) 5 H. L. C. 416.

ment; and service of a writ in the manner stipulated for by the contract will be considered valid.(a) The cases with regard to individuals are analogous.(b)

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
Corporations.

Discovery by
litigant
corporations.

Foreign corporations, when once they have become litigants in an English court, occupy the same position as natural individual persons; and their peculiar nature is not allowed to deprive their opponent of any of the ordinary rights incidental to litigation. Order XXXI. r. 5 of the schedule to the Judicature Acts provides that if any party to an action be a body corporate or any other body of persons, empowered by law to sue or be sued, whether in its own name or in the name of any officer or other person, any opposite party may apply at chambers for an order allowing him to deliver interrogatories to any member or officer of such corporation or body of persons, and an order may be made accordingly. Whether a foreign corporation, incorporated by foreign and not by English law, was included under the general term *corporation* might perhaps have been disputed; but it has been sufficiently shown that it is at any rate a "body of persons empowered by law to sue or be sued," and it therefore clearly comes within the latter part of the rule. But it has recently been held that in the case of a foreign partnership, as distinguished from a foreign corporation, service on the manager of the London agency under Order ix. r. 6, is insufficient.(c) The same rule has been applied to the case of a foreign republic, in a case (d) from which it appears that where the foreign corporation or State is plaintiff, all proceedings may be stayed until a proper person is named on its behalf to give discovery.(e)

(a) *The Thames Sulphur Co. v. La Société des Métaux*, Times Law Rep. 1889, p. 118.

(b) *Copin v. Adamson*, L. R. 1 Ex. D. 17; *Vallée v. Dumergue*, 4 Ex. 290; *infra*, Chap. XI.

(c) *Russell v. Cambefort*, 23 Q. B. D. 526.

(d) *Republic of Costa Rica v. Erlanger*, L. R. 1 Ch. D. 171.

(e) As to the right of a foreign shareholder in an English company to oppose winding-up petition without giving security for costs, see *Re Percy, &c., Co.*, L. R. 2 Ch. D. 531.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
States.

Personality
of States.(ii.) *Foreign States and Sovereigns.*

With regard to any particular municipal law, a foreign State must be regarded as occupying a position closely analogous to that of a foreign corporation; the personality of the latter being conferred upon it by its own municipal law, while that of the former is created by the public law of nations. "Every Government," says Lord Cranworth, "in its dealings with others necessarily partakes in many respects of the character of a corporation. It must, of necessity, be treated as a body having perpetual succession. It would not be represented by all or any of the individuals of whom it is from time to time composed. With respect to the provisional Government, during the time of the transactions in question, material changes took place as to the persons who from time to time exercised its functions. It is impossible to say that the defendants ever were agents of all or any of the individuals who from time to time composed that Government. Those who, as constituting the Government, stood, if they did stand, in the relation of *cestuis que trust* or of principals towards the defendants, ceased to fill that character when they ceased to be members of the Government; so that, the executive Government being now at an end, either the defendants have ceased to fill the character of trustees or agents at all, or they have become trustees or agents for the plaintiff, as the person now in possession of the supreme authority. The case may be likened to that of a person who had property in his hands entrusted to him by a corporation." (a) The passage just cited shows that the analogy between a corporation and a State may be pushed even further. When the Government in possession of the supreme authority assumes a democratic or republican form, the State occupies the position, with regard to foreign municipal law, of a corporation aggregate. When

(a) *King of Two Sicilies v. Wilcox*, 20 L. J. Ch. 417, 420; 1 Sim. N. S. 301.

the constitution of the State is monarchical, the Sovereign is regarded as a corporation *sole*. Until comparatively modern days, the maxim of the French despot, "*L'Etat, c'est moi*," was so far true that the Sovereign was universally regarded as the essential representative of the State over which he ruled; and it was well settled that a foreign Sovereign could sue in an English court long before the personality of a republic or confederation of States came in question.(a) Nor is the admitted right of a foreign Sovereign to sue confined either to his own private and personal injuries, or even to the rights of property which are vested in him by the law of his State. He is the representative of his nation, and may sue in respect of all public political rights which belong to him as such, whether they are, for internal purposes, vested in him, or in some legislative or representative body of the State.(b) And so soon as a *de facto* Government, whether revolutionary or not, is recognised by foreign Governments, it would seem to acquire all the rights and liabilities of its predecessor, which it is capable of transmitting in like manner. Thus a private subject may safely contract with a *de facto* Government of a foreign State which his own Government has recognised.(c) Even where a *de facto* Government has never been recognised by the Government of a private individual who contracts with it, the Government which succeeds to the *de facto* Government cannot displace the rights acquired by the individual who so contracts. Thus, where the Confederate States of America had sent goods held by them as public property to England under a contract, it was held that the United States could not, after the Civil War was over, repudiate the contract and recover the goods.(d)

It is of course obvious that a foreign Sovereign cannot

PART I.
PERSONS.
CAP. V.

*Foreign
States.*

Right of
foreign
Sovereign
to sue.

(a) Rolle, Ab. tit. "Admiralty," E. 3; *King of Spain v. Hullett*, 1 Dow & Cl. 169; *Nabob of Arcot v. East India Co.*, 3 B. C. C. 291; S. C. 4 B. C. C. 180, *Emperor of Brazil v. Robinson*, 1 Dowl. P. C. 522.

(b) *Emperor of Austria v. Day*, 2 Giff. 628.

(c) *Republic of Peru v. Dreyfus*, 38 Ch. D. 348. Cf. *United States of America v. M'Rae*, L. R. 8 Eq. 69.

(d) *United States of America v. Prioleau*, 2 H. & M. 559.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
States.*

sue in respect of an international wrong—*i.e.*, an injury done by one State to another. The only redress for such an injury as that lies in diplomacy or war; but whenever either the private property of the Sovereign, or the public property of the State of which he is the impersonation, is injured by a private individual belonging to another State, the tribunals of that State are available to repair the wrong.(a) It appears, however, to have been laid down as a rule by the House of Lords in the case of the King of Spain, and adopted by the Court of Chancery in *The Emperor of Austria v. Day*, that the dignity of such a plaintiff is not to be disparaged by giving him costs.

It has been already stated that the interpretation clause in the schedule to the Judicature Acts includes in the word "person," in the construction of the Rules of Court, corporations and bodies politic (Order LXXI. r. 1, schedule to Judicature Acts, 1873 and 1875); language which in itself points to a distinction between ordinary foreign corporations and those greater international personalities which are commonly called States, and is probably borrowed from language used by Lord Hatherley in a well-known modern case,(b) in which the principle that such bodies politic have a right to sue was eventually laid down by the Court of Appeal.(c)

Right of
foreign State
to sue.

It will be seen that the only difficulty in recognising the right of a foreign State to sue in an English court, as distinguished from the Sovereign of such a State, arose from the simple fact that a State had not, on the ordinary principles of law, any individuality which entitled it to the rights of a natural person—in other

(a) *King of Two Sicilies v. Wilcox*, 1 Sim. N. S. 301; *Hullett v. King of Spain*, 1 Dow & Cl. 169; *Emperor of Austria v. Day*, 2 Giff. 628. The public property of a foreign Sovereign, transiently present in this country, cannot be interfered with or attached by an English Court; and such Sovereign will be able to obtain an order allowing him to remove it, though an injunction restraining other persons from doing so has been granted: *Vavasour v. Krupp* (the Mikado of Japan), 9 Ch.D. 351; 39 L. T. 437. A foreign Sovereign does not waive or lose his rights in this respect by submitting to be made a party in order to apply to the English Court: *ibid.* Cf. *infra*.

(b) *United States of America v. Wagner*, L. R. 3 Eq. 724, 731.

(c) S. C. 2 Ch. 582.

words, it was neither a natural person nor an artificial person, such as a corporation. In other respects, the arguments in favour of the right of a Sovereign to sue in his representative character applied with equal force to the right of a nation living under a democratic form of government. "I have no doubt," says Lord Redesdale, "but a foreign Sovereign may sue in this country; otherwise there would be a right without a remedy. He sues here on behalf of his subjects; and if foreign Sovereigns were not allowed to do that, the refusal might be a cause of war."^(a) A plausible objection was, however, raised to the right of a State to sue in its own impersonal name, on the ground that such a plaintiff would be able to sue without naming any person to act on its behalf, or to comply with the ordinary requisitions of justice in the progress of the suit, thus obtaining an advantage which no other suitor could secure.^(b) This difficulty has, however, been overcome in the case of an ordinary foreign corporation for trading purposes, by making the secretary or other officer a party for the purpose of discovery, the Court assuming that such officer is under the control of the corporation; ^(c) but it was at first regarded as an insuperable bar to an action by a corporate State not represented by a Sovereign. Thus, in the *Columbian Government v. Rothschild*, a demurrer was allowed to a bill brought by the Columbian Government in that name. "A foreign State," said Sir J. Leach, "is as well entitled as any individual to the aid of this Court in the assertion of its rights, but it must sue in a form which makes it possible for this Court to do justice to the defendants. It must sue in the names of some public officers who are entitled to represent the interests of the State, and upon whom process can be served on the part of the defendants, and who can be called upon to answer the cross bill of the defendants. This general description of the 'Columbian

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
States.*

(a) *Hullett v. King of Spain*, 1 Dow & Cl. 174.

(b) *United States of America v. Wagner*, L. R. 3 Eq. 724, 731; *Columbian Government v. Rothschild*, 1 Sim. 94.

(c) *Collins Co. v. Brown*, 3 K. & J. 422; *Wych v. Meal*, 3 P. Wms. 311.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
States.

Government' precludes the defendants from these just rights; and no instance can be stated in which this Court has entertained the suit of a foreign State by such a description." (a) This decision was recognised by the House of Lords in *King of Spain v. Hullett and Hullett v. King of Spain*, (b) and followed by V.C. Page Wood (Lord Hatherley) in 1867; but his judgment was expressly reversed by the Court of Appeal, and *The Columbian Government v. Rothschild* distinguished. "The dictum," said Lord Chelmsford, "that a foreign State must sue in the name of some public officers who are entitled to represent the interests of the State must have referred to some persons or body in whom the interests of the State were vested, and who were, therefore, entitled to represent it in a suit. There was nothing upon the face of the bill to indicate whether the Government of Columbia was such a body, or, indeed, of whom it was composed; so that, if the defendants had been desirous of filing a cross bill, they would have been wholly unable, from information contained in the original bill, to know upon whom process should be served. . . . I do not see what injustice can be done by permitting the United States of America to proceed in this case in their own name. . . . If the defendant wishes to obtain a discovery, and files a cross bill for that purpose, he may apply to the United States to name some person from whom the discovery sought for may be obtained, and if they refuse to furnish him with this information, the Court will be justified in staying the proceedings in the suit until the defendant's demand is complied with." (c) And Lord Cairns said, in the same case, that nothing could be more unreasonable than to suppose that Sir J. Leach meant, in *Columbian Government v. Rothschild*, to decide, and to decide for the first time, that a republic could not sue in

(a) 1 Sim. 94, 103.

(b) 7 Bl. N. S. 359; 2 Bl. N. S. 31.

(c) *United States of America v. Wagner*, L. R. 2 Ch. 582, 589. This procedure was actually followed in *Republic of Peru v. Waguelin*, L. R. 20 Eq. 140. The person named should have been made defendant in a cross suit under the old practice; see now Judicature Acts, Order XXI. r. 4.

its own name, but must have, or must create, some officer to maintain a suit on its behalf.

The principle, then, that a State not represented by a Sovereign may nevertheless sue in its own name in English courts, as a personality created by the law of nations, must be taken as settled, and has been followed in several subsequent cases.(a) This intangible personality does, in fact, occupy exactly the same position in a republic that the Sovereign holds in a monarchy. The Sovereign, in a monarchical form of government, may, as between himself and his subjects, be a trustee for the latter, more or less limited in his powers over the property which he seeks by action to recover. But in the courts of a foreign State, as in diplomatic intercourse with the Government of a foreign State, it is the Sovereign, and not the State, or the subjects of the Sovereign, that is recognised. From him, and as representing him individually, and not his State or kingdom, is an ambassador received. In him individually, and not in a representative capacity, is the public property assumed by all other States, and by the Courts of all other States, to be vested. In a republic, on the other hand, the sovereign power, and with it the public property, is held to remain and to reside in the State itself, and not in any officer of the State. It is from the State that an ambassador is accredited, and it is with the State that the diplomatic intercourse is conducted.(b) The right to the public property of the State must draw with it the right to sue for that property, and to enforce the *choses in action* which are a part of it. Hence the only difficulty in the way of recognising the right of a State to sue in its own name could never have been more than a technical one, the proper method of overcoming which has already been indicated.(c)

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
States.

(a) *Republic of Liberia v. Imperial Bank*, L. R. 16 Eq. 179; 9 Ch. 569; *Republic of Costa Rica v. Erlanger*, L. R. 19 Eq. 33; *Republic of Peru v. Weguelin*, L. R. 7 C. P. 352; 20 Eq. 140.

(b) Per Lord Cairns, in *United States of America v. Wagner*, L. R. 2 Ch. 582, 593.

(c) *Republic of Peru v. Weguelin*, L. R. 20 Eq. 140.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
States.*

Liability of
foreign State
or Sovereign
to be sued,
where no
waiver of
sovereignty.

The liability of a foreign State or Sovereign to be sued in the tribunals of another country rests of course upon very different principles. A Sovereign or a sovereign State who submits to the jurisdiction of a foreign tribunal for the purpose of obtaining relief does, of course, by asking its assistance, impliedly waive any sanctity or protection which the law of nations gives him or it, and stands, with reference to the procedure and practice of the Court, in the position of an ordinary litigant.^(a) There is not, however, any authority for holding that a foreign Sovereign who has not so submitted himself to the jurisdiction of a Court of another country may be sued or made amenable in it; and if such an action was nominally maintainable, the judgment of the Court in it could not, of course, be executed without a breach of public international law, and the danger of incurring war. In *Calvin's Case* ^(b) it is indeed said that if a King of a foreign nation come into England, by the leave of the King of this realm (as it ought to be), he shall sue *and be sued* by the name of a King; but the object of the *dictum* is to show, not that a foreign Sovereign may be sued, but that a foreign Sovereign carries his dignity with him into England, and is a King there as much as in his own realm. Nor is there any instance cited to support the principle except a *dictum* from a case decided in 11 Edw. III.,^(c) that if a man bring a writ against Edmond Baliol, and name him not King of Scotland, the writ should abate. Edmond Baliol was, of course, a feudatory of the Crown of England, and not a foreign Sovereign at all in the modern meaning of the term. The case referred to by Selden,^(d) where the King of Spain was outlawed for not appearing in a

(a) *Hullett v. King of Spain*, 4 Russ. 225, 560; 1 Dow & Cl. 169; 1 Cl. & F. 333; 7 Bl. N. S. 359; *Duke of Brunswick v. King of Hanover*. As to the position of a foreign Sovereign when plaintiff, and his liability to give security for costs to a defendant who counter-claims in an Admiralty action, see *The Neubattle*, 10 P. D. 33, and *infra*.

(b) 7 Rep. (Coke), 15 b.

(c) Cited Moore Rep. 803.

(d) Selden's Table Talk, "Law," 3. See Lord Campbell's remarks on this case, impeaching its authority, in *De Haber v. Queen of Portugal*, 17 Q. B. 211.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
States.*

suit, or paying the costs which had been adjudged against him, shows, in effect, that a foreign Sovereign cannot practically be sued unless he submits to the jurisdiction. The King of Spain not having appeared, there could of course be no demurrer; and it would in fact have been impossible to have obtained the fruits of the judgment, which seems to have been given against him by default, had it not been for the fact that he had submitted to the jurisdiction so far as to bring other suits, which were then pending, against English merchants. By the process of outlawry, he could of course be prevented from prosecuting these, and this questionable course had therefore the effect of inducing him to pay the costs that were claimed, that he might be allowed to maintain the other actions he had brought in English courts. In *Hullett v. King of Spain* (a) a cross bill was no doubt held to be maintainable against a foreign Sovereign; but there the King of Spain had by his original bill submitted to the jurisdiction, and therefore rendered himself subject to the control of the Court and liable to the rules of practice. (b) In *Duke of Brunswick v. King of Hanover* the subject was carefully considered by Lord Langdale, who laid down that although in many instances sovereign princes, for the sake of having a claim or right determined, might have been afforded an opportunity of appearing, and might have voluntarily appeared, as defendants before the tribunals of this country, yet that it did not appear how a foreign prince could be effectually cited, nor what control an English Court could have over him or his rights; and further that no case had been cited before him in which it had been determined that a foreign Sovereign, not himself a plaintiff or claimant, but insisting upon his alleged right to be exempt from the jurisdiction, had been held bound to submit to it. "On the whole," said Lord Langdale, "it ought to be considered as a general

(a) 1 Cl. & F. 354.

(b) So where a foreign Sovereign appears as plaintiff in an Admiralty action for damage by collision, he can be ordered to give security for damages (under 24 Vict. c. 10, s. 34) to a defendant who counter-claims: *The Newbattle*, 10 P. D. 33. Cf. *Republic of Costa Rica v. Erlanger*, 3 Ch. D. 62.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
States.*

Liability of
person uniting
Sovereign and
private
character.

rule, in accordance with the law of nations, that a sovereign prince, resident in the dominions of another, is exempt from the jurisdiction of the Courts there.”(a)

It has, however, happened that the characters of Sovereign and subject have at the same time existed in the same person, in which case the test of liability has been whether the action was brought in respect of transactions entered into in the capacity of the Sovereign or of the subject. Thus, in the case just cited, where the King of Hanover was also a British peer resident in England, it was held that, being a subject of the Crown, he was liable to be sued in the courts of this country in respect of any acts and transactions done by him, or in which he might have been engaged, as such subject, but not for any acts done by him as King of Hanover, or in his character of a sovereign prince.(b) It was added, that where there was a doubt as to the capacity or character in which any particular act was done, it ought to be presumed, *prima facie*, that it was done in the capacity of the Sovereign. Similarly, in *Moodalay v. Morton*,(c) Lord Kenyon says: “I admit that no suit will lie in this court against a sovereign Power for anything done in that capacity, but I do not think the East India Company is within the rule. They have rights as a sovereign Power; they have also duties as individuals; if they enter into bonds in India, the sums secured may be recovered here. So in this case, as a private company they have entered into a private contract to which they must be liable.” The case of *The Nabob of Arcot v. The East India Company*,(d) according to the note to the report, does not seem to have been decided exactly with reference to the general liability of the defendants to an action, but rather on the ground that the transaction, in respect of which they were sued, was a

(a) *Duke of Brunswick v. King of Hanover*, 6 Beav. 1, 51. See the older cases of *Barclay v. Russell*, 3 Ves. 431; *De la Torre v. Bernales*, cited 5 Beav. 21.

(b) 6 Beav. 1, 57.

(c) 1 B. C. C. 47 a.

(d) 4 B. C. C. 179; *ibid.* note; and see *Secretary of State for India v. Kamachee Boye Sahaba*, 13 Moo. P. C. 22.

matter of political discussion; but this appears to be no more than evidence that the company had, in that transaction, acted in their political or sovereign capacity, and not in the character of a private trading company or corporation. The judgment, which is extremely short, is put on the ground that the circumstance of the defendants being subjects of the Crown was immaterial, inasmuch as the plaintiff had treated with the East India Company in the transaction, as with an independent Sovereign. In other words, a person or personality, in whom the characters of Sovereign and subject are united, is liable to an action in English courts for all acts or contracts entered into in his private capacity, but not in respect of transactions in which he has been engaged as the sovereign impersonation of a State.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
States.

Further, even when the alleged sovereign Power does not also bear the character for certain purposes of the subject of another Sovereign, it would appear that the privilege of independent sovereignty may be waived by the fact that trade has been carried on by the Sovereign in the apparent character of, and subject to the same conditions as, a private individual. In the case of *The Swift* (a) it was contended that the old Navigation Laws (15 Car. II. c. 7), which prohibited the conveyance of European produce from one colony in America to another, were binding upon the King, and Lord Stowell, in holding that there had not been in that particular case a breach of the law, expressed the following opinion: "The utmost that I can venture to admit is that, if the King traded, as some Sovereigns do, he might fall within the operation of these statutes. Some Sovereigns have a monopoly of certain commodities, in which they traffick on the common principle that other traders traffick; and if the King of England so possessed and so exercised any monopoly, I am not prepared to say that he must not conform his traffick to the general rules by which all trade is regulated." (b) If the Sovereign of Great Britain is to

Waiver of
sovereign
character.

(a) 1 Dods. 320 (1813).

(b) 1 Dods. 320, 339.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
States.

become amenable to the procedure of his own tribunals by entering into trade as a private individual, it would, *à fortiori*, seem that the immunity of foreign Sovereigns could be waived in the same manner. The question arose incidentally in *The Charkieh*,^(a) which was a cause of damage instituted by the owners of a Dutch vessel against a steamship belonging to the Khedive of Egypt, and carrying the flag of the Ottoman Navy, but at the time of the collision under charter to British subjects and advertised to carry cargo to Alexandria. It was held that the action was maintainable, both on the ground that the Khedive of Egypt was not an independent Sovereign, and on the ground that, even if he was, the privilege of sovereignty did not exclude an action for damage against the vessel itself, being a proceeding *in rem*.^(b) But it was also intimated by Sir R. Phillimore that, even assuming that the Khedive was entitled to the immunity of a Sovereign, he had, by entering into trade as a private individual, waived or forfeited that privilege. "If ever there was a case in which the alleged Sovereign, to use the language of Bynkershoek,^(c) was *strenue mercatorem agens*, or in which, as Lord Stowell says, he ought to traffic on the common principles that other traders traffic, it is the present case; and if ever a privileged person can waive his privilege by his conduct, the privilege has been waived in this case."^(d) The same question arose in *The Parlement Belge*,^(e) in which Sir R. Phillimore held in the court below that a Belgian vessel, carrying mails and carrying on commerce, did not come within the category of privileged vessels, though belonging to, and officered by, a foreign Sovereign, and protected by special treaty provisions. The Court of Appeal

(a) L. R. 4 A. & E. 59.

(b) See, however, the adverse criticism of this opinion by the Court of Appeal in *The Parlement Belge*, 5 P. D. 197, 215, 216.

(c) *Opera Omnia*, vol. ii. p. 165 (ed. 1767).

(d) L. R. 4 A. & E. 59, 99; *Phill. Int. Law*, ii. 181 (2nd ed.); *Wheaton, Int. Law* (Dana), s. 101, p. 161.

(e) 4 P. D. 129; 5 P. D. 197

reversed this decision, holding, as a matter of fact, that the vessel in question had only been used subserviently and subordinately for trading purposes, but further intimating a strong opinion that when a ship was declared by a foreign Sovereign to be a public vessel of the State, or a ship of war, no inquiry by contentious testimony into the truth of that declaration could be allowed. (a) The Court further laid down, as a general proposition, that as a consequence of the absolute independence of every sovereign authority and of the international comity which induces every sovereign State to respect the independence of every other, "each and every one declines to exercise, by means of any of its courts, any of its territorial jurisdiction over the person of any Sovereign or ambassador of any other State, or over the public property of any State which is destined to its public use, or over the property of any ambassador, though such property, ambassador, or Sovereign be within its territory, and therefore, but for the common agreement, subject to its jurisdiction. (b) So the Courts have refused to order the destruction of "shells" belonging to the Mikado of Japan, and alleged to be an infringement of the plaintiff's patent. (c)

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
States.

Lastly, the ordinary immunity from action which attaches to a foreign Sovereign may be waived by the acquisition of immovable property within the jurisdiction; (d) so far, that is, as actions relating to such immovable property are concerned. This is, no doubt, strictly upon the ground that no law, municipal or international, can be permitted to withdraw any part of the soil of a State from the control of its tribunals; and that foreigners, whether Sovereigns or subjects, are only allowed to acquire

Waiver by
Sovereign of
immunity.

(a) 5 P. D. at p. 219; *The Exchange*, 7 Cranch. 116 (Am.).

(b) 5 P. D. at p. 217.

(c) *Vavasseur v. Krupp*, 9 Ch. D. 351. Cf. also *The Prins Frederik*, 2 Dod. 451; *The Athol*, 1 W. Rob. 374; *De Haber v. The Queen of Portugal*, 17 Q. B. 171; *Duke of Brunswick v. King of Hanover*, 6 Beav. 1. The American cases in point are all cited and dealt with by Brett, L.J., in 5 P. D. at p. 207 sq.

(d) *Wheaton, Int. Law (Dana)*, s. 103; *The Charkieh*, L. R. 4 A. & E. 97; *Taylor v. Best*, 14 C. B. 487, 523; 23 L. J. C. P. 89.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
States.*

Liability of
agent of
foreign State.

and hold British land subject to the condition of waiving any such privilege conferred by international law; but Sir R. Phillimore points out that it may also be supported on two grounds. These are, first, that the owner of such property has so incorporated himself into the jural system of the State in which he holds such property, that the argument of general inconvenience to States from allowing the exemption outweighs the argument from convenience on which the exemption in other matters is bottomed; and secondly, that such a suit can be carried on without the necessity of serving process upon the Sovereign, or of interfering in any way with such personal property as may be requisite for the due discharge of his functions.^(a)

If the foreign Government does not appear and submit to the jurisdiction, there may, of course, be cases in which relief may be practically obtained against an agent employed by it, without the necessity of considering whether the action is, on principles of international law, maintainable against the Government itself. Thus, in *Larivière v. Morgan*,^(b) the French Government had contracted in England for the purchase of a large quantity of ammunition, which was to be paid for through the French ambassador when accepted; and the defendants, Morgan and others, who were English bankers, wrote to the contractor in England that a special credit for £40,000 had been opened in his favour, and would be paid to him on receipt of certificates from the French ambassador. Part of the ammunition having been delivered and paid for, further certificates and payments were refused, and the contractor thereupon filed his bill against the bankers and the French Government, praying to have the balance of the £40,000 brought into court, and for an inquiry and payment. The French Government did not appear; but the bankers were ordered to bring the money into court, and the contractor was declared to be entitled to payment for all goods delivered under the contract. "I will put

^(a) L. R. 4 A. & E. 97; per Sir R. Phillimore.

^(b) L. R. 7 Ch. 550.

the case," said Lord Hatherley, "of a foreign Government having placed in this country a sum of money, and having charged it with certain trusts to be performed, subject to which the balance is to be paid back to the foreign Government. Is it possible to say that in such a case the trustee is not liable to perform the trust because the foreign Government, one of the *cestuis que trust*, cannot be made to appear?" (a) So in *Gladstone v. Musurus Bey*, (b) where the plaintiffs had deposited certain securities in the Bank of England in the name of the Turkish ambassador, to secure the performance by them of a contract they had entered into with the Turkish Government, on the Turkish Government, through their ambassador, threatening to withdraw the securities deposited without having fulfilled their part of the contract, it was held that though it was not competent to the plaintiffs to obtain an injunction against the Turkish Government or ambassador, yet an injunction might be granted against the Bank to restrain them from parting with the securities or the funds representing them. In that event, if the Ottoman Government or its ambassador had attempted to compel the Bank to pay the proceeds to them, or to obtain damages against it for refusing to do so, they would of course have been compelled to avail themselves of the assistance of the English Courts, and therefore would have been regarded as submitting to the jurisdiction for all purposes. But where the contract, which it is really attempted to take advantage of and enforce, was actually made with the foreign Sovereign, a bill was held not to lie against a third person with whom the same foreign Sovereign had entered into an agreement in derogation of the advantages promised by his former contract with the plaintiffs, the bill praying an injunction and a declaration of the plaintiffs' exclusive right; (c) and it was said by Lord Hatherley, that those who depend upon the grant of a foreign Sovereign

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
States.*Equities
arising out of
contract by
foreign State.(a) L. R. 7 Ch. 560; *Stevenson v. Anderson*, 2 V. & B. 407.

(b) 1 H. & M. 495.

(c) *Gladstone v. Ottoman Bank*, 1 H. & M. 505.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
States.*

cannot obtain the aid of the Court against the act of the foreign Sovereign in making a second grant inconsistent with the first. It is to be observed that in this case the Ottoman Bank, who were the nominal defendants, were in no sense the trustees or agents of the Ottoman Government, and the substantial ground of the decision seems to have been, that the Court could not assert any jurisdiction to interfere with any acts of a foreign Sovereign done in the exercise of his sovereign power. The only equity alleged as affecting the defendants was that they had entered into their agreement with the Ottoman Government with full knowledge of the prior concession to the plaintiffs; but with neither of these contracts did the Court hold that it had any jurisdiction to deal, and it could not, therefore, deal with the equities arising out of them.

Property of
foreign States
—liability of.

How far relief may be obtained against a foreign Sovereign by a proceeding *in rem* (excluding the case of immovable property, which will be elsewhere considered) was not until lately quite free from doubt. In *The Charkieh* (a) Sir R. Phillimore expressed an opinion, even if the Khedive was entitled to the privileges of a sovereign prince, it would not oust the jurisdiction of the Court to entertain a cause of damage against a vessel belonging to him; but that opinion was based on the ground that the *Charkieh*, though the property of the Khedive, was employed by him for the ordinary purposes of trade, as if the property of a private individual. It was not held, and never has been, that a ship of war belonging to the navy of a foreign Government is liable to any proceedings in an English Court. (b) The opinion of Lord Stowell in *The Prins Frederik* (c) pointed to the opposite conclusion. In that case a Dutch ship of war had been saved from shipwreck by British subjects, who libelled her for salvage. On an objection to the jurisdiction being taken, it was contended that the salvors were not suing a foreign Sove-

(a) L. R. 4 A. & E. 59.

(b) *Ibid.* at p. 96.

(c) 2 Dods. 451, cited 17 Q. B. 212.

reign *in personam*, but were proceeding *in rem* against a ship within the jurisdiction of the English Court. According to Lord Campbell, (a) Lord Stowell was of opinion, in accordance with that which he had previously expressed in *The Comus*, (b) that this distinction was untenable; but a representation having been made to the Dutch Government on the subject, the matter was settled by arbitration. Since the decision, however, of the Court of Appeal in *The Parlement Belge*, it is beyond doubt that no proceeding *in rem* against the public property of a foreign Sovereign or sovereign State will be allowed. Every State declines to exercise, by means of any of its Courts, any of its territorial jurisdiction over the person of any Sovereign or ambassador of any other State, or over the public property of any State which is destined to its public use, or over the property of any ambassador, though such Sovereign, ambassador, or property be within its territory. (c) Nor does a foreign Sovereign waive his rights in respect of such property by applying to be made a defendant in an English suit for the purpose of obtaining his property. (d) And if a foreign Sovereign does not choose to appear to an action brought against him here, movable property belonging to that Sovereign which happens to be locally situate in England cannot be attached to compel appearance. (e) It was said in the cases cited, that if such an attachment be issued, the garnishee is the proper person to move for a prohibition, but that such a prohibition may be granted on the motion of the Sovereign who has not appeared in the action, or even on that of a mere stranger. In the first case it was not expressly stated that the Queen of Spain was sued in her sovereign capacity, but it was held sufficient that that fact should appear from the disclosures in the affidavits; and it appears from the judgment

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
States.

(a) *De Haber v. Queen of Portugal*, 17 Q. B. 212.

(b) Cited 2 Dods. 464.

(c) Per Brett, L.J., in *The Parlement Belge*, 5 P. D. 197, 217; *The Constitution*, 4 P. D. 39.

(d) *Vavasour v. Krupp*, 9 Ch. D. 351.

(e) *Wadsworth v. Queen of Portugal*, 20 L. J. Q. B. 488; 17 Q. B. 171; *De Haber v. Queen of Portugal*, 20 L. J. Q. B. 495; 17 Q. B. 196.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
States.*Sovereignty
and indepen-
dence of
foreign State
—recognition
of,judicially as-
certained by
the Court.

in *Duke of Brunswick v. King of Hanover* (a) that the law in such a case will presume the foreign Sovereign to have acted in that character.

The rules which have been laid down above, as to the rights and liabilities of foreign Sovereigns and States in English courts, are of course subject to the condition that the international independence and personality of the alleged Sovereign or State shall have been recognised by the Government of Great Britain in accordance with the law of nations; and English Courts are, it seems, bound to know or ascertain judicially whether such recognition has in fact been accorded. (b) In *The Charkieh* this question arose with reference to the Khedive of Egypt, before Sir R. Phillimore, who stated in his judgment that he had endeavoured to inform himself, and had had recourse to obtain this knowledge to (1) the general history of the Government of Egypt, (2) the firmans which contain the public law of the Ottoman Empire on the subject, (3) the European treaties concerning the relations between Egypt and the Porte, and (4) the Foreign Office itself. On these materials Sir R. Phillimore held that the Khedive of Egypt was not an independent Sovereign, thus sanctioning by implication the view taken by counsel, that the sovereignty or quasi-sovereignty of a foreign Government or prince was not to be established by evidence offered by the parties in the cause, but by the judicial knowledge of the Court. (c) The oldest case in which this principle was laid down appears to be that of *City of Berne v. Bank of England*, (d) where it was adopted by Lord Eldon. In *Taylor v. Barclay* (e) it was falsely alleged by the plaintiff's bill that a revolted colony of Spain was "a sovereign and independent State, recognised and treated as such by his Majesty the King of these realms," the allegation being introduced to

(a) 6 Beav. 1; ante, p. 130.

(b) *The Charkieh*, L. R. 4 A. & E. 66; *City of Berne v. Bank of England*, 9 Ves. 347; *Emperor of Austria v. Day*, 2 Giff. 628; *Taylor v. Barclay*, 2 Sim. 213.

(c) Taylor on Evidence, 6th ed. i. 3, 30; Wheaton, Int. Law (Lawrence), App. p. 970.

(d) 9 Ves. 347.

(e) 2 Sim. 213.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
States.*

avoid a demurrer, by which a former bill founded on the same substantial facts had been met.^(a) It was held that the Court was bound to know that the allegation was false, and to act upon that knowledge; and a demurrer was therefore allowed. "Sound policy requires," said Shadwell, V.C., "that the Courts of the King should act in unison with the Government of the King." The ground on which the demurrer was based being that a contract to lend money to a rebel so-called Government, whose independence had not been recognised by Great Britain, would be void for illegality, the Court was plainly bound to act on its own judicial knowledge to avoid a breach of international law, which might in some instances amount to a *casus belli*; and the decision in *Biré v. Thompson*,^(b) referred to by the Vice-Chancellor, was decided upon the same principle. Every Government is of course responsible, according to the law of nations, for the acts of its tribunals, and must be presumed to have given them the necessary information for their guidance. Where it has not also armed them with sufficient powers to carry out the principles of international law, it runs the risk of being compelled, in its sovereign character, to repair the omission. The deficiencies in English municipal law which led to the escape of the *Alabama* and her consorts during the American Civil War, and ultimately led to the Geneva Arbitration and the passing of the Foreign Enlistment Act, 1870 (33 & 34 Vict. c. 90), will furnish a sufficiently modern illustration.

A foreign State, then, will be allowed to sue in an English court, either in its impersonal form or represented by its Sovereign; and, under certain exceptional circumstances, may be made a defendant. When, however, it appears as litigant in an English court, it cannot be allowed to escape from any of the obligations incidental to the suit, or to obtain any advantage over other suitors

Obligations of
foreign State
when litigant.

(a) *Thompson v. Poyles*, 2 Sim. 194. So a Sovereign who claims the privilege of immunity as such must be reigning *de facto* at the time of the plea: *Munden v. Duke of Brunswick*, 16 L. J. Q. B. 300.

(b) Cited 2 Sim. 222. See also *Emperor of Austria v. Day*, 2 Giff. 628.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
States.*

from its peculiar character. It must sue in a form (in the words of Sir J. Leach) which makes it possible for the Court to do justice to the defendants.^(a) The provisions of Order XXXI. r. 5 of the Judicature Acts (schedule), empowering the opposite party to apply at chambers for an order to administer interrogatories to any member or officer of a body corporate or a body of persons otherwise authorised by law to sue or be sued, in cases where such a body is party to the action, have been held to be applicable to foreign *States* as well as corporations.^(b) So the defendant in an action brought by such a body may apply to it to name some person from whom discovery may be obtained on its behalf; and, in default of compliance, proceedings may be stayed.^(c) It was formerly necessary to make the person named defendant in a cross suit for discovery, but now interrogatories may be administered without taking that course, under the Rule of Court already referred to. And in an old case it was held that a foreign Sovereign, when suing in this country, might be compelled to give security for costs like any other plaintiff bringing a similar action.^(d)

Acts of
sovereignty
give rise to no
civil rights.

The principle that Sovereigns and sovereign States are not liable to actions in municipal courts, whether domestic or foreign, for acts done in their sovereign capacity, has been extended further. Acts of sovereignty do not create any civil right or liability whatever, either in the nature of contract ^(e) or of tort.^(f) Thus, acts done by agents of sovereign Governments, either with express authority, or with the authority implied by subsequent ratification

^(a) *Columbian Government v. Rothschild*, 1 Sim. 94.

^(b) *Republic of Costa Rica v. Erlanger*, L. R. 1 Ch. D. 171.

^(c) *United States of America v. Wagner*, L. R. 2 Ch. 582, 589; *Republic of Peru v. Weguelin*, L. R. 20 Eq. 140. See, on the old practice, *King of Spain v. Hullett*, 7 Bligh, N. S. 359, and cases there cited.

^(d) *Emperor of Brazil v. Robinson*, 5 Dowl. P. C. 522; *King of Greece v. Wright*, 6 Dowl. P. C. 12.

^(e) *Does v. Secretary of State for India*, L. R. 19 Eq. 509; *Secretary of State for India v. Kamachee Boye Sahaba*, 13 Moo. P. C. 22; *Sirdar Bhagwan Singh v. Secretary of State for India*, L. R. 2 I. App. 38; *Nabob of the Carnatic v. East India Co.*, 1 Ves. 371; *Duke of Brunswick v. King of Hanover*, 6 Beav. 1; *Elphinstone v. Bedreecund*, 1 Knapp, 316.

^(f) *Buron v. Denman*, 2 Ex. 167.

and adoption, give rise to no contractual relation between the agents of the Government on the one hand, and the other person or personality affected by the act on the other. (a) A petition of right would seem to be the only remedy available for a wrong sustained by such person affected. (b) The law is the same when an act is done by an agent of an independent Government, either clothed with authority or supported by subsequent ratification, that would have been tortious if done by a private individual. "If," says Parke, B., in the case cited, "an individual ratifies an act done on his behalf, the nature of the act remains unchanged. It is still a mere trespass, and the party injured has his option to sue either. If the Crown ratifies an act, the character of the act becomes altered; for the ratification does not give the party injured the double opportunity of bringing his action against the agent who committed the trespass or the principal who ratified it, but a remedy against the Crown only (such as it is), and actually exempts from all liability the person who commits the trespass. Whether the remedy against the Crown is to be pursued by petition of right, or whether the injury is an act of State without remedy, except by appeal to the justice of the State which inflicts it, or by application of the individual suffering to the Government of his country, to insist upon compensation from the Government of the other—in either view the wrong is no longer actionable." (c) There must, however, be either previous authority or subsequent ratification; and an agent or servant of a sovereign State will therefore be held liable for acts done by him in excess of his authority, if no subsequent ratification by his Government is shown. (d) The principle itself is clearly a necessary result of the ordinary intercourse of nations. If it were not recognised, the absurdity would follow, that every

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
States.*

(a) *Secretary of State for India v. Kamachee Boye Sahaba*, 7 Moo. Ind. App. 476; S. C. 13 Moo. P. C. 22.

(b) *Thomas v. The Queen*, L. R. 10 Q. B. 31.

(c) Per Parke, B., in *Buron v. Denman*, 2 Ex. 167, 188.

(d) *Madrazo v. Willes*, 3 B. & Ald. 353; *The Rolla*, 6 Rob. 364.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
States.

member of the military and naval forces of his country would be liable to a civil action of trespass for the execution of his duty on active service. A trespass authorised by a sovereign State is, in truth, an act of war, and can only be dealt with as such.

(iii.) *Foreign Ambassadors.*Diplomatic
immunity

The general principle has been shown to be that an independent Sovereign is not liable to be sued in the courts of a foreign State, unless he has in some manner waived his sovereignty and the immunity which it confers, or otherwise consented to the jurisdiction, or bears the double character of Sovereign and subject, and is sued in the latter character only. The rule and its exceptions apply with equal force whether the person of the foreign Sovereign is or is not within the jurisdiction; though in the latter case the additional privilege of immunity from personal arrest and detention is invariably conferred on the Sovereign by public international law.^(a) But with the ordinary and *prima facie* immunity from action which a foreign Sovereign enjoys is often confounded another privilege—viz., the immunity of an ambassador or other authorised representative of an independent State.

rests on theory
of extra-
territoriality.

The principle upon which this immunity rests is what is commonly called the fiction of extra-territoriality (*extra-territorialité*). The residence of a foreign Minister within the jurisdiction of the State to which he is accredited is, by this fiction, to which the Sovereign of the State assents by receiving him, considered as a continuing residence in his own country; and this fictitious situation is applied not only to the person of the Minister, but to his family and suite, secretaries of legation and other secretaries, servants, movable effects, and the house in which he resides.^(b) Thus, the children of English ambassadors

(a) Wheaton, Int. Law (Dana), p. 155.

(b) Wheaton, Int. Law, §§ 98, 224, 235. It is said by Brett, L.J., in *The Parlement Belge*, 5 P. D. 207, that the immunity of an ambassador from the jurisdiction of the Courts of the country to which he is accredited is

born abroad have the full rights of British nationality, including the power of transmitting it to their descendants. (a) The person of the Minister is, moreover, entirely exempt from all civil and criminal jurisdiction, (b) so that his immunity would not be affected by a mere permission under the new practice to serve the writ or notice of the writ *abroad*; though it might be a curious subject of speculation how far such an order might be applicable to the case of an action against a subject of the country not connected with the foreign Minister's establishment, but present, casually, or even as a refugee, within his house. To the general rule, that a foreign Minister, his family and suite, are exempt from civil and criminal jurisdiction, Wheaton states the three following exceptions. First, the exemption does not apply to the contentious jurisdiction, so far as the person claiming the diplomatic immunity voluntarily makes himself party to an action. Secondly, he continues subject to the jurisdiction, if he is a citizen or subject of the country to which he is sent, and that country has not renounced its rights over him. Thirdly, he is subject to the jurisdiction, if he is not only entitled to the diplomatic immunity in one character, but is in another in the service of the Power to which he is accredited.

PART I.
PERSONS.
CAP. V.

Foreign
Ambassadors.

The extent of the diplomatic immunity, which attaches, as has been said, to the whole of the Minister's family and suite is not very easily defined. It includes, however, exemption from all writs and process of the Courts, and

Extent of
immunity.

based upon his being the representative of the independent sovereign State which sends him, and which sends him upon the faith of his being admitted to be clothed with the same independence of, and superiority to, all adverse jurisdiction as the sovereign authority whom he represents would be. No doubt this is the reason that the principle of extra-territoriality was introduced; but the principle itself has been too long established to be left out of sight. In accordance with this theory, the children born abroad of English ambassadors abroad are regarded as natural-born subjects: *Calvin's Case*, 7 Rep. 18 a, from which it appears that the mother must be an Englishwoman. But see, *contra*, *Bacon v. Bacon*, Cro. Car. 601; *Doe v. Jones*, 4 T. R. 300.

(a) *De Geer v. Stone*, 22 Ch. D. 243.
(b) *Magdalena Steam Co. v. Martin*, 2 E. & E. 94; 28 L. J. Q. B. 310; *Taylor v. Best*, 14 C. B. 487; 23 L. J. C. P. 89; *Gladstone v. Musurus Bey*, 1 H. & M. 495; *Macartney v. Garbutt*, 24 Q. B. D. 368. As to marriages solemnised within the chapels, &c., of legations, see 4 Geo. IV. c. 91; 12 & 13 Vict. c. 68; and *ante*, p. 76.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
Ambassadors.*

Waiver of
immunity—
as witnesses,

judicial restraints upon his person, his movements, and his time. In a very recent case it has been held that a member of a foreign embassy, though a British subject, is similarly protected, and that his furniture is privileged from seizure for non-payment of parochial rates.^(a) Thus it appears, not only that he cannot be brought into court as a defendant, but that the same objection applies to his coming there as a witness; and it is clearly laid down that he cannot be compelled to appear and give evidence, even in criminal cases.^(b) Thus, in the trial of Herbert for murder at Washington, in 1856, the Minister of the Netherlands, who was an important witness to the transaction, refused to appear in court at the request of the United States Government, who admitted his right to decline, and his own Government refused to instruct him to appear as a witness, although requested to do so by the United States. The principle of his objection appears to have been, that though his testimony might have been voluntary in the first instance, yet circumstances might have subjected him to compulsion with respect to rules of cross-examination and procedure which justice to the parties implicated might require the Court to enforce. It is clear that a person entitled to the diplomatic immunity may waive the privilege by appearing in court to give testimony, by commencing an action as plaintiff, or by voluntarily appearing to a writ and pleading otherwise than to the jurisdiction. Thus, in a case arising out of the Sicilian insurrection in 1848, which was tried at the Old Bailey in July 1849, the Neapolitan Minister voluntarily appeared and gave evidence against the prisoners, who were charged with unlawfully fitting out ships of war against a friendly Sovereign, under the Foreign Enlistment Act.^(c) So in *Taylor v.*

(a) *Macartney v. Garbutt*, 24 Q. B. D. 368.

(b) *Wheaton*, Int. Law (Dana), p. 306, n.

(c) It appears from the *Annual Register*, 1849, p. 70, where an account is given of this trial, that the indictment was preferred at the instance of the Neapolitan Minister himself. The author is indebted to Sir E. Hertslet, of the Foreign Office, for calling his attention to this instance of the diplomatic privilege being waived.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
Ambassadors.*

Best, (a) one of four co-defendants, being secretary of legation to the King of the Belgians, appeared voluntarily and pleaded to the merits. After notice of trial he obtained a rule *nisi* to stay further proceedings, or strike his name out of the action, which was discharged, upon the ground that, though he was entitled to claim diplomatic immunity, he had in fact waived his privilege by appearing and pleading, and could not afterwards rely upon what he had abandoned. The Court further laid stress upon the fact that it did not appear that the result of the action would be to interfere in any way with the person or effects of the defendant, but it is difficult to see how this could have been assumed, or how, if true, it could in any way alter the effect of the alleged waiver of the diplomatic immunity.

If an ambassador entitled to the diplomatic immunity waive his privilege by bringing an action, it does not appear quite clear how far he is placed in the position of an ordinary litigant. In 1816 the Court of Queen's Bench refused to make such a plaintiff give security for costs, (b) on the ground that there was no precedent for such a course, with the exception of a case in 1727, where a similar order had been made on an ambassador's servant. (c) The diplomatic immunity, however, extends equally to an ambassador and all the members of his suite (d) (with the exception to be mentioned immediately), so that there appears to be little reason for the distinction; and since the date of the decision referred to, foreign Sovereigns themselves, when suing in English courts, (e) have been more than once compelled to give security for their

(a) 14 C. B. 487; 23 L. J. C. P. 89. Cf. *Gladstone v. Musurus Bey*, 1 H. & M. 495, at p. 504.

(b) *Duke of Montellano v. Christin*, 5 M. & S. 503; *Davies v. Solomon*, cited Tidd, Fr. 535, n. (e).

(c) *Goodwin v. Archer*, 2 P. W. 452.

(d) Wheaton, Int. Law (Dana), 306, n.

(e) *Emperor of Brasil v. Robinson*, 5 Dowl. P. C. 522; *King of Greece v. Wright*, 6 Dowl. P. C. 12. In *Gladstone v. Musurus Bey*, 1 H. & M. 495, 504, the language of Wood, V.C., indicates that, if an ambassador became a plaintiff, the Court would administer justice between all the parties in the ordinary way.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
Ambassadors.Effect of
statute 7
Anne, c. 12.

costs. The case cited would therefore probably not now be followed.

The diplomatic immunity has hitherto been treated of by the light of the principles of public international law which have been laid down by jurists and acknowledged in British courts. They were, however, but little understood or practised until the circumstances which led to the passing of the 7 Anne, c. 12, which does in fact do little more than declare the Common Law on this subject.^(a) This statute was passed in consequence of the arrest of the Russian ambassador in the streets of London for a debt of trivial amount, and the diplomatic difficulties which arose out of the supposed insult to the representative of the Czar.^(b) It enacts that all writs and processes thereafter sued forth against the person of any ambassador or other public Minister of a foreign State, or of any domestic servant of such ambassador or Minister, or for the distraint, seizure, or attachment of their goods or chattels, shall be null and void (s. 1); but that no merchant or other trader whatever, within the description of any of the statutes against bankrupts, who hath put or shall put himself into the service of any such ambassador or public Minister, shall have or take any manner of benefit from the Act (s. 3). It will therefore be noticed that the servant of an ambassador may by trading waive the diplomatic immunity to which he is entitled; a liability which does not, as will be shown below, attach to ambassadors or Ministers themselves. As a matter of practice, indeed, the affidavits made by ambassadors' servants claiming the protection of the Act have generally negatived expressly the fact of the applicant being engaged in trade.^(c)

It has been already said that this statute was declaratory of the Common Law. The preamble recites that the

(a) *Novello v. Toogood*, 1 B. & C. 564; *Hopkins v. Robeck*, 3 T. R. 79; *Magdalena Steam Co. v. Martin*, 2 E. & E. 94; 28 L. J. Q. B. 310.

(b) See the account of these circumstances in Steph. Bl. ii. 488.

(c) *Malachi Carolino's Case*, 1 Wils. 78; *Hopkins v. De Robeck*, 3 T. R. 79; *Viveash v. Becker*, 3 M. & S. 284.

arrest had been made "in contempt of the protection granted by her Majesty, contrary to the law of nations, and in prejudice of the rights and privileges which ambassadors and other public Ministers have at all times been thereby possessed of, and ought to be kept sacred and inviolable." The persons who shall violate the provisions of the statute itself are to be deemed "violators of the law of nations, and disturbers of the public repose." "The Act itself," said Lord Tenterden, "was only declaratory and in confirmation of the Common Law. It must, therefore, be construed according to the Common Law, of which the law of nations must be deemed a part."(a) The same view is taken of the scope and effect of the statute by Lord Campbell, C.J., in *Magdalena Steam Navigation Co. v. Martin*.(b) So far as regards the immunity of those persons who are the subjects of this legislation, the authorities on international law cited above show that this view is a correct one; but there is considerably more doubt about the 3rd section, which prevents "*traders*" from taking or deriving any benefit from the Act as servants of an embassy. The rule of international law appears to be, as will be shown below, that the diplomatic immunity of an ambassador cannot be waived by his entering into trade, although it has been already seen that an independent Sovereign can waive his immunity by a similar course. The reason of the distinction may be that the privilege of an ambassador is not his own, but something entrusted to him for the mutual benefit of the country which he represents and that to which he is accredited; and therefore that it cannot be waived by his entering into commercial relations with those amongst whom he dwells—a practice which, when adopted by members of a diplomatic body, is always viewed with disfavour.(c) Whatever the reason of the rule, it would almost certainly have applied, on the

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
Ambassadors.*Distinction
between am-
bassadors and
ambassadors'
servants.(a) *Novello v. Toogood*, 1 B. & C. 554.(b) 28 L. J. Q. B. 310; 2 E. & E. 94. See also *Hopkins v. De Robeck*, 3 T. R. 79.(c) *Wheaton, Int. Law (Dana)*, §§ 306, 307.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
Ambassadors.*Service of
ambassadors
contemplated
by statutemust be
actual and
bond fide.

principles of international law alone, to the servants of ambassadors and the ambassadors themselves equally; and the statute therefore does make a distinction between ambassadors and their servants which the Common Law itself would never have drawn.

The statute, however, now defines the extent and manner of the recognition to be given to the rules of public international law on this particular subject, and must be taken in substitution for them. "It must be considered," says Lord Ellenborough, "as declaratory not only of what the law of nations is, but of the extent to which that law is to be carried."^(a) It has been repeatedly held that, in order to take advantage of it, the claimant must be actually and *bond fide* in the service of the foreign Minister, and that no colourable or collusive employment will do.^(b) The fact of the service, and its nature, must, it seems, be established by affidavit;^(c) and where a physician, during the pendency of a writ of error on a judgment which had been recovered against him, obtained a retainer to serve the Bavarian Minister at a salary of £40 a year, and swore that he had not since accepting it prescribed for or advised any other patients, he was held not to be entitled to the protection he claimed.^(d) The law is, in short, that the process of the law shall not take a *bond fide* servant of a foreign Minister out of his service, but that nevertheless a foreign Minister shall not take a person who is not his *bond fide* servant out of the custody of the law, or in any way screen him from the payment of his just debts.^(e) Such *bond fide* servants need not be in the habit of sleeping in the house of the Minister, provided that they are in his actual service;^(f) and it seems

(a) 3 M. & S. 298.

(b) *Cross v. Talbot*, 8 Mod. 288; *Evans v. Higgs*, 2 Str. 797; *Seacomb v. Bowliney*, 1 Wils. 20; *Darling v. Atkins*, 3 Wils. 33; *Delvalle v. Plumer*, 3 Camp. 47.

(c) *Malachi Carolino's Case*, 1 Wils. 78.

(d) *Lockwood v. Coysgarne*, 3 Burr. 1676.

(e) *Heathfield v. Chilton*, 4 Burr. 2016.

(f) *Wedmore v. Alvarez*, 2 Str. 797; *Evans v. Higgs*, *ibid.*; *Darling v. Atkins*, 3 Wils. 33; *Novello v. Tbogood*, 1 B. & C. 562.

that a chorister, *bond fide* employed by an ambassador in the performance of religious worship in his chapel, is a servant for the purposes of this Act.(a)

It is not enough to state that the name of the person who claims immunity as an ambassador's servant was registered at the office of the Secretary of State, and thence transmitted to the sheriff's office, since an actual service must be disclosed upon the affidavits, though (b) it is not, of course, necessary that every particular act or habit of service should be specified; and if service is *prima facie* shown, the presumption will be, in the absence of further evidence, that it is not colourable or collusive.(c) But unless the name of the claimant has been so registered in the office of the Secretary of State, and transmitted to the sheriff's office, it appears that the sheriff or sheriff's officer making the arrest is not liable to the summary proceedings provided by way of punishment in s. 4 of the Act; (d) nor will the mere fact that the defendant has been appointed chaplain to a foreign ambassador or Minister entitle him to protection, unless it is shown that he does duty as such chaplain.(e) In a case where the wife of the defendant was arrested under a writ issued against both, the defendant swore that before and at the time the writ was issued he was in the actual employment of the ambassador to the King of Spain, as second secretary to the embassy; that his employment consisted in writing despatches and other official documents for the ambassador, and that he was in daily attendance upon him.(f) The Court refused to quash

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
Ambassadors.

Service to be
shown on
affidavit.

(a) *Fisher v. Begrez*, 1 C. & M. 117. It has been recently held, by the tribunals of Prussia, that a coachman hired with a carriage from a livery stable keeper, by the French ambassador, was not the servant of the ambassador, and not exempt from process. See *Law Magazine and Review*, August 1889, and *Journal du Droit Int. Privé*, 1889, pt. i., ii.

(b) *Fisher v. Begrez*, 1 C. & M. 117.

(c) *Triquet v. Bath*, 3 Burr. 1478.

(d) *Seacomb v. Bowliney*, 1 Wils. 20.

(e) *Ibid.* A person in the navy cannot, it seems, be a domestic servant to an ambassador: *Darling v. Atkins*, 3 Wils. 33.

(f) *English v. Caballero*, 3 Dowl. & B. 25. In *Carolino's Case*, 1 Wils. 78, it was held that an interpreter was not a domestic servant.

PART I.
PEMBONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
Ambassadors.*

the writ, Abbott, C.J., on the ground that the affidavit did not state that the defendant was a domestic servant of the ambassador, or employed in the ambassador's house; Holroyd, J., also on the ground that the writ was not absolutely void because it had issued, unless or until put in force by an arrest. It is difficult, however, to see that the affidavit was defective in any material particular, and the other reason on which the judgment of Holroyd, J., proceeded is directly contrary to the express words of the statute, which provide that all writs thereafter sued forth or prosecuted, whereby . . . the domestic servant of any ambassador or public Minister may be arrested or imprisoned, or his goods and chattels may be seized, distrained, or attached, shall be deemed and adjudged to be utterly null and void to all intents, constructions, and purposes whatsoever.(a) The case is said to have been one of considerable suspicion, and must probably be regarded as an instance of the law being strained to fulfil the presumed requirements of expediency and moral justice.

Extent of
statutory
immunity.

The privilege of immunity is expressly conferred upon the goods as well as the person of all who are entitled to it, but this exemption does not attach to all such goods without qualification. Where the claimant of the privilege, as chorister to a foreign ambassador, resided in a separate house, part of which he let out as lodgings, was a teacher of music and languages, and also acted as prompter at one of the London theatres, it was held that his goods in that house, not being necessary for the convenience of the ambassador, or for the due performance of the claimant's service, were liable to be distrained for poor-rate.(b) In this case the Court seems to have considered that the goods seized were possessed by the claimant, not in his capacity of ambassador's servant, but in some other character. The question how far the protection of the statute attached to goods of an ambassador's servant *dehors* the house of the ambassador

(a) 7 Anne, c. 12, s. 3.

(b) *Novello v. Toogood*, 1 B. & C. 554.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

Foreign
Ambassadors.

was also raised in *Fisher v. Begrez*,^(a) but it was unnecessary to decide it, the Court coming to the conclusion that the affidavits did not sufficiently show that the claimant was a domestic servant to the ambassador at all; and that the fact that his name was included in the list which had been registered in the office of the Secretary of State, and transmitted to the sheriff's office, was insufficient. The object of that list, it was said, was to call the attention of the sheriff to the names registered, and to protect him, in case the party against whom he should execute process should claim the diplomatic immunity without having been registered.^(b)

The statutory immunity conferred by this Act does not attach to consuls,^(c) and must in strictness be confined to those whom it mentions—namely, ambassadors or public Ministers and their domestic servants. It has already been said that in general writers on public international law consider that it properly belongs to the wife and family, servants and suite of the Minister, as well as to all persons attached to the legation or embassy; but it must be very doubtful how far any protection beyond that conferred by the statute can be claimed in an English court. "I cannot help thinking," said Lord Ellenborough, "that the Act of Parliament, which mentions only ambassadors and public Ministers, and which was passed at a time when it was an object studiously to comprehend all kinds of public Ministers entitled to these privileges, must be considered as declaratory, not only of what the law of nations is, but of the extent to which that law is to be carried." These considerations, however, can only apply to the issue and service of the writs to which the statute is confined, and to such persons as the Legislature may fairly be taken to have contemplated, and not to extraordinary representatives of a foreign Govern-

(a) 1 C. & M. 117.
 (b) *Fisher v. Begrez*, 1 C. & M. 127; *Hopkins v. De Robeck*, 3 T. R. 79, 80; *Delvalle v. Plumer*, 3 Camp. 48.
 (c) *Viveash v. Becker*, 3 M. & S. 284; *Clarke v. Cretico*, 1 Taunt. 105.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
Ambassadors.*

ment, whose office has been called into existence by a special occasion. Thus, in *Service v. Castaneda* (a) it was held that an injunction could not be sustained against the agent of a foreign Government, whose business in this country was only that of settling certain claims upon the Government he represented, and whose acts in that capacity were done entirely under the control of the ambassador of that Government resident in England. "If the statute of Anne," said the Vice-Chancellor, "does not apply to this particular case, the Common Law does."

Common Law
immunity
from suit—
not affected
by statute.

It will be observed that the Act refers only to the issue and service of writs whereby the person or goods of ambassadors or their servants may be seized or attached. It was not intended by it to abridge the immunity given to ambassadors by the law of nations, that they shall not be impleaded in the courts of the country to which they are accredited. (b) Not only is this a principle of international law, but it was expressly laid down by Lord Campbell in 1859 that a public Minister duly accredited to the British Crown by a foreign State is privileged from all liability to be sued here, quite apart from the operation of the statute of Anne; (c) and this principle may of course be extended, theoretically speaking, to the ambassador's family and suite, and members of the legation, though there is no English authority practically carrying the doctrine further than the case just cited. In *Taylor v. Best*, (d) indeed, the Court had hesitated to carry it so far, and while holding that the defendant had waived his privilege, if any existed, by appearance and plea, left it doubtful whether an ambassador could be sued at all by process not affecting his person or his goods, when there had been no such waiver.

Ambassadors'
privilege not
waived by
trading.

The case just referred to is an authority for the proposition that an ambassador does not lose his privilege by

(a) 2 Coll. 56.

(b) Per Lord Campbell, 28 L. J. Q. B. 310, 315.

(c) *Magdalena Steam Navigation Co. v. Martin*, 28 L. J. Q. B. 310.

(d) 23 L. J. C. P. 89.

trading in the country to which he is accredited, which has been already stated. "The privilege," said Jervis, C.J., "is not, in the case of a Minister, interfered with or abandoned by the circumstance of trading; as it would be if the claim were set up in respect of the privileges of a servant of the ambassador under the statute of Anne. If an ambassador or Minister violate the character in which he is delegated to this country, by entering into commercial transactions, that raises a question between the country to which he is sent and the country from which he is sent; but he does not thereby lose any privilege to which he may be entitled; the privilege being a general privilege, and the limitation attached to the privilege, by reason of trading, being confined by the statute of Anne to the case of servants of the ambassador, who may lose the privilege."^(a) It was, however, held that the defendant in this case had lost his privilege by not taking the objection at an earlier stage of the action, and a rule to strike his name out of the record was consequently discharged.

Whether or not the immunity or privilege attaches, when the servants of the ambassador are subjects of the State against whose laws they assert it, must still be regarded as doubtful, as a general principle. In England the question is not of much importance, inasmuch as the statute of Anne is certainly not limited to non-subjects. The Prussian Courts, in a case which arose in 1888 with respect to a coachman hired by the French ambassador, appear to have held that the mere fact of the accused being a Prussian subject excluded him from the privilege claimed. The United States Government seems to adopt, or at any rate to sanction, this principle.^(b)

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

*Foreign
Ambassadors.*

(a) *Taylor v. Best*, 23 L. J. C. P. 89, 93; 14 C. B. 487; *Barbuit's Case*, Cas. temp. Talbot, 281.

(b) See *Law Magazine and Review*, August 1889, p. 365; Wharton on Int. Law of the U.S. vol. i. p. 644.

PART I.
PERSONS.

CAP. V.

SUMMARY.

FOREIGN CORPORATIONS, STATES, SOVEREIGNS, AND
AMBASSADORS.

pp. 101, 102. (i.) *Foreign Corporations*.—The artificial personalities or corporate bodies which are created by the municipal laws of foreign States are recognised in English courts, when their character is substantially the same as that of a corporation created by English law.

pp. 102-104.
104-109. A foreign corporate body may therefore sue and be sued in England under its corporate name; and the provisions in the Rules under the Judicature Acts, for service of a writ of summons or notice thereof abroad, apply to these artificial as well as to natural persons.

p. 106. Where a foreign corporation carries on business at a branch office in England, with a clerk or officer in the nature of a head officer there, whose knowledge would be the knowledge of the corporation, service of a writ may be effected on such officer. If there is no such officer in England, notice of the writ should be served on the head office of the corporation abroad.

pp. 107, 108. The recognition accorded by English Courts to foreign corporations does not, except as above stated, expose them to the operation of the English enactments regulating English corporations; unless, it seems, their creation proceeded from the laws of a jurisdiction subordinate to the British Crown.

pp. 112-120. A foreign corporation, though incapable of domicile in the strict sense, may reside beyond the limits of the State which created it. Except perhaps for the purposes of jurisdiction and service of process, a foreign corporation resides only in the principal seat of its business. Such residence is a question of fact, in which the locality of its incorporation and registration, the seat of its governing body, and the place where its profits are made, realised, or remitted, are all elements to be considered.

p. 121. Foreign corporations, when litigant in an English court,

occupy the same position with regard to the conduct of the action as natural persons, and may be compelled to make discovery and answer interrogatories by a proper representative.

PART I.
PERSONS.
CAP. V.

(ii.) *Foreign States and Sovereigns*.—Foreign States, or pp. 122, 123. bodies politic created by international law, occupy a position analogous to that of foreign corporations. In the case of monarchical governments, the Sovereign may be regarded as a corporation sole, representing the State; in the case of democratic or republican governments, the State itself, under its international name or style, as a body politic, may be regarded as a corporation aggregate.

The sovereign power of a State, in either of these two pp. 124-127. cases, may sue in an English court under its *quasi*-corporate or politic name in respect of the public property and *choses in action* of the nation which it represents. The Sovereign, in the case of a monarchical government, may also sue in respect of his private rights and property as a private individual; but the practice has been hitherto not to give a Sovereign litigant, though successful, his costs.

Neither a personal Sovereign nor a body politic (or pp. 128-134. State) may be sued in an English court, unless the privilege of sovereignty has been waived, expressly or impliedly, by voluntary submission to the jurisdiction or otherwise.

But when a foreign Sovereign is also, in another capacity, pp. 130, 131. the subject of another sovereign State, he may be sued in the courts of that other State, if not in the courts of all States except his own, in respect of acts done by him in that subject and private capacity; though the *prima facie* presumption, with respect to all his acts, is that they were done by him in his character of Sovereign.

No jurisdiction, whether by proceedings *in rem* or otherwise, will be asserted in an English court over the public property of a foreign Sovereign or State, though such pp. 133, 136. property be within the territorial limits of English jurisdiction.

A foreign Sovereign or State, when litigant in an English p. 139.

PART I.
PERSONS.
CAP. V.

court, occupies the same position, with respect to discovery and the other incidents of the suit, as a private individual.

pp. 138, 139.

The sovereignty and independence of an alleged Sovereign or body politic are matters which an English Court should know or ascertain judicially; and evidence to prove these facts need not, it appears, be offered by the parties to the action.

pp. 140-142.

Acts of State, authorised or ratified by a sovereign power, create no civil rights or liabilities.

pp. 142-144.

(iii.) *Foreign Ambassadors*.—Foreign ambassadors or Ministers, with their families, officials, suites, servants, and attendants, are, by the fiction of *extritorialité*, regarded as continuously resident in the State of which they are the representatives. Foreign ambassadors or Ministers are, by international law, exempt from being sued or impleaded for any cause whatever in the courts of the State to which they are accredited. There is no English authority expressly extending this immunity to the inferior members of the legation, or to their families, suites, and servants; but it is so extended by writers on international law.

pp. 147, 152.

A foreign ambassador or Minister does not lose this immunity, or waive his privilege, by engaging in trade; though the statutory protection given to the servants of ambassadors or Ministers, and therefore by implication their Common Law immunity, is forfeited by such a course of action. The immunity may, however, be waived by appearing and pleading; and a privileged person, by taking such a course, places himself in the position of an ordinary litigant. The extent of this immunity, though not clearly defined by English precedents, is by writers on international law treated as including all writs and processes of court, and all judicial restraints upon the time, movements, or person of those entitled to the privilege.

p. 146.

p. 143.

p. 146.

The rules of international law on this subject, adopted by the Common Law of England, have been amplified by statute (7 Anne, c. 12); which declares all writs and pro-

cesses, sued out against the person or goods of any foreign Minister or ambassador, or of any domestic servant of such ambassador or Minister, to be null and void. This statutory protection may be forfeited, in the case of the servant of an ambassador or Minister, by engaging in trade.

To be entitled to this statutory protection as the domestic servant of an ambassador or Minister, the claimant must be actually and *bona fide* in such service, and no colourable or collusive employment will do. The nature of the employment or service is in each case a question of fact; and proof that the claimant's name has been registered as such servant at the office of the Secretary of State, and thence transmitted to the office of the sheriff, is insufficient evidence of that fact. PP. 149-151.

Part II.—PROPERTY.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CHAPTER VI.

CAP. VI.

IMMOVABLE PROPERTY.

(I.) *Jurisdiction as to Immovable Property situated Abroad.*

Prevalence of
the *lex situs*.

THE primary principle of private international law with relation to land, regarded as property, is that the *lex situs* or *lex rei sitæ*—that is, the law of the country of which the land in question forms an integral part—is the only law which can or ought to affect it. If real property could always be regarded in this simple light, freed from its many complicated relations with the contracts, acts, and capacities of persons, no conflict of law would ever arise with regard to it; but these necessary relations have brought about considerable modification in the primary principle just laid down. The principle itself arises from the conception of international law known as *eminent domain*, by which is meant that the proprietary right of every sovereign State is not only *absolute* within its territorial limits, so as to exclude that of other nations, but also *paramount* with respect to the members of the State itself, so as to include the right, in case of necessity or for the public safety, of disposing of all the property of every kind within the same limits (Wheaton, Int. Law, § 163). It need hardly be pointed out that in England such a theory must be regarded as derived directly from the feudal law, according to which the right of the Crown over its territory was, in the first instance, *absolute*, not only to the exclusion of other Sovereigns, but also of its own subjects, who afterwards obtained their qualified rights in

the soil by its mere grace and favour. From the conception itself it naturally follows that the title to real property can be acquired, passed, and lost only according to the law of the Sovereign who has such paramount domain over it (Story, Conflict of Laws, § 424); and an additional reason for the principle, independent of theory, arises from the obvious fact that no other sovereign State has the power of employing force to execute such of its laws, or such of the decrees of its tribunals, as affect to deal with land situated beyond its own limits.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

Jurisdiction
as to Land.

The distinction between real and personal laws, so much insisted upon by the older jurists, and which is discussed at some length by Mr. Westlake (Priv. Int. Law, §§ 141-143), is not of any importance in connection with this division of the subject; and would rather lead to embarrassment, as, in the phraseology of the jurists alluded to, *real* laws are those "*quæ disponunt circa res*," *personal* laws, those "*quæ disponunt circa personas*,"^(a) and the word "*real*" is used, not to distinguish immovable from movable property, but property generally from persons. As to immovables, however, Story says that in the main proposition as to the prevalence of the *lex situs*, foreign jurists generally concur (Story, Conflict of Laws, § 427). It remains to see what modifications of the rule are accepted in English law.

Real and
personal laws.

As regards the right either to the possession of or the property in land, not only must the *lex situs* prevail, but the *forum situs* is the only one in which such a right can be tried; and in accordance with this principle, the English Courts never assume jurisdiction to deal directly either with the possession or property in foreign realty (Story, Conflict of Laws, § 428; Westlake, Priv. Int. Law, §§ 61, 62). Thus, a suit for discovery, in aid of proceedings about to be taken abroad to recover foreign land, cannot be entertained here.^(b) But where the foreign land can be

Foreign land
affected by
English
decrees in
personam.

(a) Bartolus, ad Cod. I. 1.

(b) *Reiner v. Marquis of Salisbury*, 2 Ch. D. 378; *Doss v. Secretary of State for India*, L. R. 19 Eq. 509; and cases cited *infra*, p. 167.

PART II.
PROPERTY,

CAP. VI.

*Jurisdiction
as to Land.*

acted upon indirectly through a person who has placed himself within the jurisdiction, the English Courts, acting *in personam* and not *in rem*, will make decrees, upon the ground of a contract or other equity subsisting between the parties, respecting property situated out of the jurisdiction. (a) "The cases clearly show, that with regard to any contract made or equity between persons in this country respecting lands in a foreign country, particularly in the British dominions, this Court will hold the same jurisdiction as if they were situated in England. . . . The only distinction is, that this Court cannot act upon the land directly, but acts upon the conscience of the person living here." (b) Thus, a foreclosure decree being a decree *in personam* depriving the mortgagee of his personal right to redeem, the English Court of Chancery has jurisdiction to make such a decree in respect of a mortgage, between an English mortgagor and mortgagee, of land in the colonies. (c) In that case Bacon, V.C., said: "As I am satisfied that jurisdiction has been very often assumed in the case of appointing receivers of mortgaged estates in the colonies, and as I cannot doubt that the Court has a right as between the English mortgagor and the English mortgagee to enforce a personal contract between them, although one of the consequences of so doing may be to vest in the plaintiff the absolute interest in the mortgaged estate, which at present is qualified only by the existence of the equity of redemption, I cannot hesitate for a moment in saying that the suit, which is brought for the purpose of having the account taken, of realising the estate if it should be necessary, and giving to the mortgagee the opportunity of

(a) *Penn v. Baltimore*, 2 Tud. L. C. 1047; 1 Ves. Sen. 444; *Ewing v. Orr-Ewing*, 9 App. Cas. 40; *Scott v. Nesbitt*, 14 Ves. 438; *Maunder v. Lloyd*, 2 J. & H. 718.

(b) Per Sir R. Arden, M.R., in *Cranstoun v. Johnston*, 3 Ves. 170. See cases there cited.

(c) *In re Hawthorn*, 23 Ch. D. 743; *Paget v. Ede*, L. R. 18 Eq. 118, 126; *Toller v. Carteret*, 2 Vern. 494. So a receiver may be appointed over lands abroad [Seton, ii. 16, s. 4 (4th ed.), and cases there cited]; though it is said that such appointment is in the nature of a recommendation to the foreign Court (Seton, 4th ed. p. 425). And obviously, an order directing foreign tenants to attorn will be bad: *Trant*, 2 Sol. Journ. 11.

redeeming it if he thinks fit to do so, is properly brought in this court. Upon the question of jurisdiction, there is, in my opinion, no reason whatever for doubt." The judgment of Lord Romilly in *Norris v. Chambers* (a) was relied upon in denial of the jurisdiction, but in that case the attempt was to obtain an enforcement of lien on an estate in Prussia belonging to a stranger, independently (as Lord Romilly expressly said) of all personal equity attaching upon him. And in the same case, on appeal, Lord Campbell said that, had any contract or privity been proved, the plaintiff would have been entitled to succeed, (b) further laying down that an English Court ought not to pronounce a decree, even *in personam*, which can have no specific operation without the intervention of a foreign Court, and which, in the country where the lands lie which it assumes to charge, would probably be treated as *brutum fulmen*. It is, of course, manifest that however a personal decree may be enforced in this country, the *lex situs* must be resorted to in order to give the plaintiff possession. (c) And in accordance with these principles, a bill cannot be maintained in England to administer the trusts of a Scotch creditor's deed, under which a mining business in Scotland was to be carried on by a trustee. (d) In the case last cited, Lord Romilly laid down that the Court would never interfere with a contract unless the domicil of the defendant, or the situation of the subject-matter, or the place where the contract was entered into, warranted such interference; unless, that is, it was the *forum domicilii*, the *forum rei sitæ*, or the *forum loci contractus celebrati*. This case was subsequently followed by Malins, V.C., who allowed a plea to the jurisdiction where the contract had been entered into at Boulogne, between the plaintiff, who was resident there, and an Irishman, relating to real property in Ireland. (e) Unless, therefore, the person on whom it is sought to enforce an equity regarding foreign

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Jurisdiction
as to Land.*Conditions
necessary for
the exercise
of this
jurisdiction.

(a) 30 L. J. Ch. 285.

(b) 3 D. F. & J. 584.

(c) *Penn v. Baltimore*, 2 Tudor L. C. at p. 1061.(d) *Cookney v. Anderson*, 31 Beav. 452.(e) *Blake v. Blake*, 18 W. R. 944; *Re Holmes*, 2 J. & H. 527.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Jurisdiction
as to Land.*

land is domiciled in England, or has entered into a contract in England respecting the same property, the Court will not assume jurisdiction to compel him to do any act with regard to it.(a) And the validity or effect of a contract to transfer immovables was held by Jessel, M.R., to depend upon the *lex situs*,(b) as of course the penalties must do.(c) So the Court has refused to entertain a suit in England to determine the right to the proceeds of foreign immovables, the title to which was disputed.(d) But an order made by the Supreme Consular Court at Constantinople that the receiver appointed of a partnership between English subjects should sell by auction land in Turkey held by the partners in the name of a Turkish subject, was held to be not *ultra vires*.(e) The Court undoubtedly had jurisdiction *in personam*, but a protocol had been issued by the Turkish Government—of which the partners had not availed themselves—enabling for the first time British subjects to hold land in Turkey, but declaring that they should then be amenable to the Turkish Courts only in regard to all questions relating to it. The Consular Court, however, being the proper one to control the persons of the parties, it was held immaterial that the Turkish Government assumed to itself all jurisdiction in respect of real estate in Turkey held by them, either in their own names or in that of a Turkish subject.

Colonial land
not to be
affected by
petition of
right in
England.

In the case of *Re Holmes*,(f) which was one of petition of right, a demurrer was allowed on the ground, *inter alia*, that the Queen was as much resident in Canada as in England, and that the subject-matter of the petition being Canadian land, the Canadian court was the proper *forum* in which to sue. The suppliants there sought to establish the jurisdiction of the Court by applying the principle

(a) *Matthæi v. Galitzin*, L. R. 18 Eq. 340. As to the proper *forum* in which to recover a debt made a charge on foreign territory (Oude), see, per Malins, V.C., *Doss v. Secretary of State for India*, L. R. 19 Eq. 509, 535.

(b) *Norton v. Florence Land, &c., Co.*, 7 Ch. D. 332, 336.

(c) *Adams v. Chatterbuck*, 10 Q. B. D. 403.

(d) *In re Hawthorn, Graham v. Massey*, 23 Ch. D. 743.

(e) *Abbott v. Abbott*, L. R. 6 P. C. 220. (f) 2 J. & H. 527.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

Jurisdiction
as to Land.

laid down in *Penn v. Lord Baltimore* (a) as to the power of equity to affect foreign land by acting *in personam* of its justiciaries, to her Majesty, by virtue of the Petitions of Right Act, 1860 (23 & 24 Vict. c. 34), s. 1, which enacts that a petition of right may be intituled in any one of the superior courts in which the subject-matter of such petition would have been cognizable, if the same had been a dispute between subject and subject. The decision of Lord Hatherley, however, rested on the broad ground that, for the purpose of any claims to Canadian lands under Canadian statutes, the Queen was not to be regarded as within the jurisdiction of the Court, and that it was not the object of the Petitions of Right Act, 1860, to transfer jurisdiction to this country from any colony in which an Act might be passed vesting lands in the Crown for the benefit of the colony.(b) And in *Reiner v. Marquis of Salisbury* (c) it was decided that a bill of discovery could not be maintained in England, in aid of proceedings about to be taken in England for the recovery of land in India, intended to be by petition of right, on the ground that a plaintiff must show a title to sue in order to obtain discovery, and that he could not sue for the Indian lands in an English court.

In *Cranstoun v. Johnston* (d) a sale of real estate in one of the West Indian islands by a creditor who had fraudulently obtained a judgment there against an absent debtor was set aside. The Master of the Rolls in that case said, "It was not much litigated that Courts of Equity here have an equal right to interfere with regard to judgments or mortgages upon lands in a foreign country as upon lands here. . . . The only distinction is, that this Court cannot act upon the land directly, but upon the conscience of the person living here: *Archer v. Preston*, cited, 1 Vern. 77; *Arglasse v. Muschamp*, 1 Vern. 75; *Kildare*

English
contracts
upon con-
science of its
justiciable.

(a) 1 Ves. Sen. 444.

(b) See *Doss v. Secretary of State for India*, L. R. 19 Eq. 509.

(c) L. R. 2 Ch. D. 378.

(d) 3 Ves. 170; S.C. 5 Ves. 277; *Jackson v. Pêrie*, 10 Ves. 164.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Jurisdiction
as to Land.*

Foreign and
colonial land
on same
footing,

and can only
be reached
through a
personal
equity.

v. Eustace, 1 Vern. 419, and 1 Eq. Cas. Ab. 133. These cases clearly show, that with regard to any contract made by, or equity between, persons in this country respecting lands in a foreign country, particularly in the British dominions, this Court will hold the same jurisdiction as if they were situated in England; and Lord Hardwicke lays down the same doctrine in *Foster v. Vassall*, 3 Atk. 589."

The distinction alluded to by Sir R. Arden, M.R., in the quotation just made, between lands situated within the empire or colonies and lands wholly foreign, derives some support from the language used in *Foster v. Vassall*, (a) but does not appear to have any other foundation. In *Angus v. Angus*, (b) where a bill was filed relating to lands in Scotland, Lord Hardwicke said that, since the Court acted upon the person, it would have been a good bill, as to fraud and discovery, *if the lands had been in France*, if the person were resident in England. All lands out of the jurisdiction stand upon the same footing, (c) and as to these, there are abundant examples of equities being enforced. There must, however, be an equity which the English court can lay hold of, and this principle is well explained by Lord Selborne in *Harrison v. Harrison*. (d) That was a case where a Scotch heir elected to take the Scotch real estate by inheritance in opposition to an English will, under which he would have been entitled to a legacy, and it was held on appeal that the liability of the Scotch real estate to the payment of debts, as between the heir and the legatees, was to be determined by the Scotch law. It followed that as the Scotch law threw the general debts primarily on the real estate, there could be no marshalling in the English court against the Scotch heir in favour of the pecuniary legatees, and the Scotch real estate was further exempted from any share in the general costs of the suit. Lord Selborne said in his judgment (e): "The doctrine of

(a) 3 Atk. 589.

(c) *Roberdean v. Rous*, 1 Atk. 543.

(e) L. R. 8 Ch. p. 348.

(b) West's Rep. 23.

(d) L. R. 8 Ch. 342.

marshalling as applied in favour of legatees against heirs-at-law taking descended real estate in England is part of the *lex loci* affecting those real estates, and no question of conflict of law can arise under those circumstances. It is a wholly different thing when persons who have an interest in the personal estate only endeavour indirectly to establish in their own favour, or for their own relief, a burthen upon real estate situate in another country, which, by the law of that country, would not be administered so as to give them what they ask. . . . The legatees ask that by virtue of the English doctrine of equity, applicable to the administration of English real estate descended when personal legatees would be disappointed by the payment of creditors out of their fund, these legatees may be declared entitled to acquire the rights of creditors against the Scotch real estate. It is clear that in Scotland they would have no such right; and to me it seems equally clear that unless they have such a right in Scotland the law of England cannot give it to them. It is admitted, as I understand, that the burthen of liability to debts, so far as relates to real estate, can only be created by the *lex loci rei sitæ*; but it is suggested that the burthen may be laid on real estate on which it is not imposed by the *lex loci rei sitæ* by an indirect equity in favour of the legatees, because the creditors who have been paid might have pursued their own rights against the real estate without waiting, in the first instance, to see whether there was personal estate or not. It seems quite impossible that this can be correct; because, in the first place, as against the real estate in Scotland the Courts of England have no jurisdiction at all. *Any jurisdiction which they can exercise as to the real estate in Scotland can only be through the medium of some personal equity attaching to the owner in Scotland of that real estate, who, in this case, is the Scotch heir. What is that personal equity?* There is no fiduciary relation. What right have these legatees, upon the footing of personal equity, to say that the heir shall not enjoy the Scotch real estate as the law of Scot-

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Jurisdiction
as to Land.*

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

Jurisdiction
as to Land.

Equity must
arise from
some contract
or trust

creating a
privity
between the
parties

cognizable by
an English
Court.

land gives it to him, or that any burthen shall directly or indirectly be thrown upon that real estate in their favour, which would not be imposed by the law of Scotland? *It seems to me quite clear that this Court cannot found any such equity upon the accident of this heir-at-law being before it as a party to the suit.* The equity must be founded upon some higher principle. The fallacy which pervaded the whole of the argument for the respondent was this, that it was assumed that the Scotch estate was properly brought into this court as the *forum* of administration. But without first showing what this Court has to do with respect to the Scotch real estate, and why it ought to be done, the proposition is not made out. *There are, in point of fact, no debts to be paid out of the Scotch real estate; there are no trusts to be executed as to the Scotch real estate; there is no contract to be enforced as to the Scotch real estate."*

The rule which is therefore to be drawn from the decision of Lord Selborne just quoted (with which Lord Justice Mellish concurred), is, that in order to affect real estate situate abroad with an equity which does not attach to it by the *lex loci rei sitæ*, there must be a privity shown to exist between the parties seeking to establish the equity and the owner of that real estate, and that it must be a privity which arises either from contract or from the existence of a fiduciary relation between the parties. According to the cases just cited, (a) it is also necessary that the defendant at least should be domiciled in this country, or that the contract out of which the privity arises should have been entered into here. Mr. Westlake says that it may probably be laid down as a principle, as it is certainly demanded by the very nature of sovereignty, that the jurisdiction of the English Courts will not be exercised as to persons domiciled abroad, and as to their conduct abroad, even though process may have been served on them here. (b) And this being a general

(a) *Cookney v. Anderson*, 31 Beav. 452; *Blake v. Blake*, 18 W. R. 944; *Matthai v. Galitzin*, L. R. 18 Eq. 340.

(b) *Westlake*, Priv. Int. Law, § 127; see the cases cited in *Hendrick v. Wood*, 9 W. R. 588.

rule, it would be so *à fortiori* in cases relating to real estate situate abroad, which there would be no pretence for affecting indirectly through the person of the owner, unless that owner were either domiciled within the jurisdiction, or had entered into a contract within its limits in relation to the real estate which it was sought to affect.

But a distinction has been drawn as to those cases where the *lex situs* positively excludes the operation of the equitable doctrine on which the English Court is asked to act *in personam*. In such a case the English Court will decline to interfere, in accordance with the *dictum* of Lord Campbell (cited above), that a decree should not be made which would be treated in the *situs* as *brutum fulmen*.^(a)

Subject to these restrictions, there have been abundant ^{Equities enforced.} examples of equities being enforced in relation to real estate situate abroad. Thus, trusts will be enforced, though affecting foreign lands,^(b) accounts taken between tenants in common for waste and generally,^(c) and contracts for sale ordered to be specifically performed.^(d) But foreign boundaries will not be settled,^(e) nor will partition of foreign lands be decreed,^(f) nor will an issue be directed to try the validity of a will of lands lying out of the jurisdiction,^(g) nor will discovery be granted in aid of a suit abroad to recover foreign land,^(h) nor will mortgagees of foreign realty be restrained from suing in the country where it is situate to enforce their security, although the mortgagor is a company in process of being

(a) *Martin v. Martin*, 2 R. & My. 507; and per Lord Campbell in *Morris v. Chambers*, 3 De G. F. & J. 584, 585; *Ex parte Pollard*, Mont. & Ch. 239; *Ex parte Holthausen*, 9 Ch. 722; *Coote v. Jecks*, 13 Eq. 597.

(b) *Kildare v. Eustace*, 1 Vern. 422.

(c) *Carteret v. Petty*, 2 Swans. 323, n.; *Roberdeau v. Rous*, 1 Atk. 543.

(d) *Archer v. Preston*, 1 Vern. 77; *Jackson v. Petrie*, 10 Ves. 164; see note to *Penn v. Baltimore*, 1 Tud. L. C. 1047, for further examples.

(e) *Penn v. Baltimore*, 1 Ves. Sen. 444; see *Tulloch v. Hartley*, 1 Y. & C. C. C. 114.

(f) *Cartwright v. Pettus*, 2 Ch. Cas. 214.

(g) *Pike v. Hoare*, 2 Eden, 182.

(h) *Reiner v. Salisbury*, 2 Ch. D. 378.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

Jurisdiction
as to Land.

wound up in England.(a) The ground of the last decision appears to have been, that the party asking for the injunction could appear before the foreign tribunal, and assert his rights there, the proceedings abroad being also prior in point of date. There was, however, authority cited for restraining a foreign action under analogous circumstances, where immovables were not concerned.(b) On similar principles, a suit to enforce a lien on real estate in Prussia cannot be sustained unless there is some privity of contract between the parties to it. In such a case, a declaration of lien will be made, and the Court will in some cases appoint a receiver; but it will be left to the plaintiff to make it available, if he can, by means of the foreign tribunals.(c) In the case of *Holmes v. Regina* (d) certain lands in the colonies were vested in the Queen by an Act of the Provincial Legislature, and it was held that the Courts of this country, acting *in personam*, had not jurisdiction to entertain a petition of right in respect of such lands, praying for a reconveyance of part of them to the suppliants on equitable grounds. A power was formerly assumed of granting sequestrations against the estates of defendants situated in Ireland,(e) but these cases are of doubtful authority, and the observations of Lord Brougham on the judgment in the latter case, in *Portarlington v. Soulby*,(f) show that they would not now be followed. In the late case of *Whitaker v. Forbes*,(g) it was held that an action of debt for a rent-charge on lands situate in Australia was not maintainable in England, but this was on the ground that such an action was local and not transitory in its nature, and

Abolition of
rules of venue.

(a) *Moor v. Anglo-Italian Bank*, 10 Ch. D. 681.

(b) *Ex parte Tait*, L. R. 13 Eq. 311. In *Ex parte Rogers, In re Boustead*, 16 Ch. D. 665, 667, it seems to have been thought that the leave of the Court of Bankruptcy ought to have been obtained, before issuing a colonial sequestration against real estate of the bankrupt in a colony.

(c) *Norris v. Chambres*, 30 L. J. Ch. 285.

(d) 31 L. J. Ch. 58; 2 J. & H. 527.

(e) *Arglasse v. Muschamp*, 1 Vern. 75; *Fryer v. Bernard*, 2 P. Wms. 261.

(f) 3 My. & K. 109.

(g) L. R. 10 C. P. 583; 1 C. P. D. 51.

that the rules of *venue*, which had not then been abolished, would prevent it from being tried anywhere but in the *forum situs*. It was contended in that case, in the argument on appeal, that the rule as to an action for rent-charge being local did not apply to cases where the land was situated out of England; but Lord Cairns denied that there was, either in principle or authority, any ground for such a proposition. In *Phillips v. Eyre* (a) Willes, J., said: "Our courts are said to be more open to admit actions founded upon foreign transactions than those of any European country; but there are restrictions in respect of locality, which exclude some foreign causes of action altogether—namely, those which would be local if they arose in England, such as trespass to land (*Doulson v. Matthews*, 4 T. R. 503)." These particular restrictions, in respect of *venue*, have now been removed by the Judicature Act, 1875, Order xxxvi. r. 1. In the late case of *Buenos Ayres Railway Co. v. Northern Railway of Buenos Ayres Co.*, (b) the plaintiff and defendant companies were both registered and had their offices in England, and the action was brought on a contract for the use and occupation of land and buildings within the dominions of the Argentine Republic. The statement of defence alleged these facts, and further that both companies were domiciled in the Argentine Republic, where the alleged contract was made, and that the Government of that State had "assumed jurisdiction" in the matter. It was contended that, as the claim of the plaintiffs related to immovable property and rights incident to immovable property situated in a foreign country, the High Court of Justice had not jurisdiction over the same; and that for it to assume to adjudicate thereon would under the above circumstances be a violation of the comity of nations. A further contention was set up that the claim could not be conveniently disposed of in England, inasmuch as the contract sued on had been made abroad, and was therefore subject to the law

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Jurisdiction
as to Land.*

(a) L. R. 6 Q. B. 1, 28.

(b) 36 L. T. 148.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Jurisdiction
as to Land.*

Trusts enforced when trustees justifiable.

Interference with actions in the *forum situs*.

of the *locus contractus*. This defence was held bad on demurrer, Mellor, J., saying that there was nothing in it to establish that jurisdiction over the subject-matter of the claim was, either by law or by contract of the parties, vested exclusively in the courts of the Argentine Republic.

It was said above that trusts respecting lands out of the jurisdiction will be enforced by the Court of Chancery, but this will obviously be so only when the trustees are persons on whom the Court can effectually act, and if there are no such trustees, no trust can be settled or enforced. In *New v. Bonaker* (a) a testator gave certain funds to the President and Vice-President of the United States and the Governor of Pennsylvania, to build and endow a college for special purposes in Pennsylvania. The trustees having disclaimed, Malins, V.C., refused to attempt to settle a scheme for the administration of the trust, and held that the funds bequeathed fell into the residuary estate. The ground, however, of the decision was rather the principle of *Attorney-General v. Sturge*, (b) that it does not fall within the province or power of the Court to see to the administration of a foreign charity, than the fact that the trust contemplated the acquisition and holding of foreign land for a particular purpose.

With regard to injunctions to restrain proceedings abroad for the recovery of real estate, the Court will grant them at its discretion, if there is reason to believe that all the matters in dispute will be better determined in England, and the parties are before the Court, so as to be controlled by it effectually. (c) In the more recent case of *Hope v. Carnegie*, (d) a British subject, entitled to real and personal estate, both in England and the Netherlands, died domiciled in England, leaving a will by which he gave to trustees all his property here and abroad, but as to his foreign property only so far as he could dispose of it according to the *lex rei sitæ*. A

(a) L. R. 4 Eq. 655.

(c) *Bunbury v. Bunbury*, 1 Beav. 318.

(b) 19 Beav. 597.

(d) L. R. 1 Ch. 320.

decree was made in England for the administration of his estate, and subsequently one of his children instituted proceedings in the Netherlands for the administration of his real and personal estate in that country. It was held by Knight Bruce, V.C., that the proceedings in the Netherlands ought to be restrained as to the personal estate, but not as to the realty, leaving them to be carried on separately as to that, if possible; but Turner, V.C., thought that the proceedings ought to be restrained as to the real estate abroad also, on the analogy of *Bunbury v. Bunbury*.^(a)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Jurisdiction
as to Land.*

The balance of authority, however, is certainly against any interference with the *forum situs*, so far as regards realty, though the jurisdiction has always been asserted. The question was much discussed in *Carron Iron Company v. Maclaren*,^(b) where the cases on the subject are carefully examined by Lord St. Leonards. In *Bushby v. Munday*,^(c) proceedings in Scotland on a Scotch heritable bond were restrained by Sir John Leach, on the ground that the validity of the bond could best be decided in England; but a similar injunction was dissolved by Lord Eldon in *Kennedy v. Cassilis*,^(d) under the circumstances of that case, though he expressed himself satisfied as to the jurisdiction. So in *Jones v. Geddes*,^(e) an injunction had been granted against a heritable bond creditor who was proceeding in Scotland against the assignees in bankruptcy of the obligor, who had real estate there. Lord Lyndhurst dissolved the injunction upon a simple consideration of the balance of conveniences and inconveniences of the different courses of action, but here also the jurisdiction was fully recognised. And citing *Elliot v. Lord Minto*,^(f) Lord St. Leonards says: "Of course questions of Scotch law—for example, the right of Scotch estates to be exonerated out of the personal estate—must be decided according to Scotch

(a) *Bunbury v. Bunbury*, 1 Beav. 318.

(c) 5 Madd. 297.

(e) 1 Phill. 724; *Wedderburn v. Wedderburn*, 4 My. & Cr. 585.

(f) 6 Madd. 16.

(b) 5 H. L. C. 416.

(d) 2 Swans. 313.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Jurisdiction
as to Land.*

law; and if practicable, in a complicated case, by the Courts in Scotland." In cases, however, where litigation is pending in England, and complete relief may be had here, the Court of Chancery will restrain foreign proceedings taken by a party to the suit, as a vexatious harassing of the opposite party.(a) This was the ground of the decisions in *Harrison v. Gurney*(b) and *Beckford v. Kemble*.(c) In *Harrison v. Gurney* a decree had been obtained for the execution of the trusts of a deed for the benefit of creditors, and a receiver of real estates in England and Ireland had been appointed. Some of the trustees having filed a bill in Ireland for executing the trusts of the same deed, Lord Eldon restrained them from prosecuting that suit, on the ground that it sought the same relief as might be had under the decree obtained in this country. In *Beckford v. Kemble*, after a decree in this country for an account on a bill to redeem a West Indian mortgage, Sir John Leach would not allow the mortgagee to prosecute a suit in the *forum situs* for foreclosing the same mortgage, on the ground that full relief might be obtained under the decree in this country. The point arose more recently in *Baillie v. Baillie*.(d) but though an injunction was granted in that case, Malins, V.C., expressly said that the question there was only about the personal estate of a domiciled Englishman, and that he was not interfering with any remedy that might exist in Scotland against the real estate situated there of the testator.

Equity not
enforced if
repugnant to
the *lex situs*.

A distinction is pointed out by Mr. Westlake (Priv. Int. Law, § 64) between cases where the equity binding on the person, and enforced by the English Court, does not exist by the law of the *situs*, and cases where it is absolutely excluded by it. Where the Court acts upon foreign lands, it does so, as explained in *Cranston v. Johnston*.(e) through the conscience of the person whom

(a) Per Lord Cranworth, 5 H. L. C. 437.

(b) 2 J. & W. 563.

(d) L. R. 5 Eq. 175.

(c) 1 Sim. & S. 7.

(e) 3 Ves. 170.

it has the power and duty of controlling; and it is immaterial if the special equity to be enforced has no existence in the eye of the *lex situs*, with which, as to the kind of remedy applicable to the circumstances, the English law is not likely to coincide. This is seen in the case of *Ex parte Pollard, Re Courtney*,^(a) where an equitable mortgage, according to English law, was effected by depositing the title deeds of real estate in Scotland; and it was held that this mortgage could be enforced, although it was found in the special case that by the Scotch law no lien or mortgage was created by the deposit. The principle of this case was followed in *Ex parte Holthausen, Re Scheibler*,^(b) with respect to property situated at Shanghai, in China, though no conflict with the *lex situs* there arose, and the question was whether the contract was to be governed by English or Prussian law, having been entered into by correspondence between parties resident in London and Prussia respectively. But in *Martin v. Martin* ^(c) a post-nuptial settlement of land in Demerara invalid by the law of that colony, was held ineffectual as against a subsequent mortgagee with notice, on the ground that the law of Demerara expressly prevented the settlement from operating so as to diminish the absolute ownership and control of the husband and wife over the estate. The principle was substantially the same as that in *Ex parte Borrodaile, Re Rucker*,^(d) where an equitable mortgage, by the deposit of title-deeds, of slaves in Antigua, was declared invalid, on the ground that the laws of the colony declared void the creation of any interest in slaves—at that time real property—unless the title was made apparent by the intervention of certain forms, which in that case had been disregarded. The distinction between this case and that of *Ex parte Pollard* just referred to, is apparent on comparing the two. And in *Waterhouse v. Stansfield* ^(e) Turner, V.C., said that when the law of a foreign

(a) Mont. & Ch. 239; see *Coote v. Jecks*, L. R. 13 Eq. 597.

(b) L. R. 9 Ch. 722.

(c) 2 Russ. & My. 507.

(d) 2 Mont. & Ayr. 398.

(e) 10 Hare, 259; see 2 Hare, 1, 8, 12.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Jurisdiction
as to Land.*

Injuries to
foreign im-
movables—
whether cog-
nizable in
English
courts.

country placed a restraint upon the alienation of property situated there, an equity arising here on a contract respecting such property could not be enforced against the *lex rei sitæ*.

With regard to the jurisdiction in respect of injuries to foreign realty, the question was until lately governed by the distinction between local and transitory actions, and the distinctions as to *venue* which have been removed by the Judicature Act,(a) *Skinner v. The East India Company*,(b) which was decided in 1665, it was solemnly laid down that no action lay in England for torts to real property or fixtures abroad; but in a subsequent case (c) Lord Mansfield took a distinction between actions concerning the title to or possession of foreign realty, and those for damages based on an injury to foreign realty, and referred to an action which had come before him against a captain in the English navy who had pulled down some houses in Nova Scotia, and which he had ruled was maintainable. In *Doulson v. Matthews*,(d) however, although Lord Mansfield's *dicta* were brought before the notice of the Court, they were distinctly overruled, and it was decided again that no action lay in this country for trespass to realty situate abroad. Since the restrictions as to *venue* have been removed, the question has been mooted in a late case in the Probate and Admiralty Division of the High Court,(e) where an English company, possessed of a pier in Spain, instituted a cause of damage against an English ship for negligently injuring it; but the ship having been released from arrest upon an agreement that the liabilities of the parties should be decided in the English courts, the owners were prevented from setting up any objection to the jurisdiction. In deciding that the law of Spain must govern the case, Mellish, L.J., used the following expressions (f):—
“If that is the rule respecting personal wrongs and

(a) 37 & 39 Vict. c. 77; Ord. xxxvi. r. 1.

(c) *Mostyn v. Fabrigas*, Cowp. 180.(e) *The M. Mozhay*, L. R. 1 P. D. 107.

(b) Cited Cowp. 167.

(d) 4 T. R. 503.

(f) L. R. 1 P. D. p. 112.

respecting wrongs to personal property"—i.e., that no action can be maintained in England for a wrongful act, unless it is wrongful by the law of the country where it was committed, as well as by English law—"it seems to me *à fortiori* that it must be the rule as to wrongful acts to real or immovable property in a foreign country. Whether the rule as to wrongful acts to immovable property in a foreign country does not go still further, and prevent an action from being brought at all, is a question which it is not necessary to determine in this case; because, having regard to the consent of the parties and the agreement that has been come to, no objection to the jurisdiction could be taken." And James, L.J., said in the same case, that had it not been for this agreement, very grave difficulties indeed might have arisen as to the jurisdiction of the Court to entertain any action or proceedings whatever with respect to injuries done to foreign soil. It would indeed seem clear, that a mere alteration in the rules of procedure in the English courts could not operate to extend their jurisdiction beyond the limits which were formerly laid down, if those limits were originally defined not only by the necessities of procedure, but by the principles of the law of nations which English law recognises. Whether, however, the law of nations did thus define them appears very doubtful when the unlimited jurisdiction in the case of personal torts, to which the rules of *venue* did not apply is considered. According to Mellish, L.J., in the judgment from which quotation has just been made, it is an established principle that no action can be maintained in the courts of England on account of a wrongful act either to a person or personal property, committed within the jurisdiction of a foreign country, unless the act is wrongful by the law of the country where it is committed, and also wrongful by the law of this country.(a) Thus, in *Phillips*

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Jurisdiction
as to Land.*

Effect of
abolition of
rules of *venue*.

(a) *The M. Mocham*, L. R. 1 P. D. 107, 111; *Phillips v. Eyre*, L. R. 6 Q. B. 1; *The Halley*, L. R. 2 P. C. 193; *General Steam Navigation Co. v. Guillon*, 11 M. & W. 877, 895; *Mostyn v. Fabrigas*, 1 Sm. L. C. 658; *Scott v. Seymour*, 1 H. & C. 219; 31 L. J. Ex. 457; *Bullock v. Caird*, L. R. 10 Q. B. 276, and *infra*.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Jurisdiction
as to Land.*

v. *Eyre*, where the liability of the defendant had been taken away, and his wrongdoing purged, by the law of the country where the tortious act was committed, it was held that no action could be brought in this country. This limitation, however, is not one of jurisdiction at all; but results merely from the principle that the tortious nature of an act must be measured by the law of the place where it is done, as well as by that of the *forum* where the claim for damages is made.^(a) There has been no authority but that referred to above, since the rules of *venue* have been abolished, to show whether the law of nations excludes jurisdiction over torts to foreign land altogether. According to the last edition of Story (§ 554) it appears to be the American view that an action for personal damages, though founded on a tort to foreign immovables, is not confined to the *forum rei sitæ*. Nor do the reasons given in the English cases before the abolition of *venue* in any instance go beyond the necessities of English procedure. In the language already cited from the judgment of Willes, J., in *Phillips v. Eyre*,^(b) there is plainly nothing which necessarily means more than that actions for torts to foreign realty cannot be tried, because the rules of *venue* prevent them from coming before the Court. In *Mostyn v. Fabrigas* ^(c) Lord Mansfield pointed out that there is a formal and a substantial distinction as to the locality of trials. The substantial distinction is, where the effect of the judgment cannot be had, if the action is laid in the wrong place. The formal distinction is that which arises from the mode of trial, and excludes certain actions by means of the rules of *venue*. And by way of example, it was said, that there might be a solid distinction of locality, if an action were brought relative to an estate in a foreign country, where the question was a matter of title only, and not of damages. It can hardly be doubted that the rule as to *venue* was in Lord Mansfield's mind the only obstacle to the trial by an English Court of an action

^(a) *Vide infra*, Chap. IX. (ii.).^(b) L. R. 6 Q. B. 1, 28; *ante*, p. 175.^(c) Cowp. 161; 1 Sm. L. C. 658, 680.

for injury to foreign realty.(a) Nor is it easy to maintain that there is any reason more valid to restrain the jurisdiction now that that obstacle is removed. The execution of the judgment in such an action, inasmuch as it can only be brought when proper service is effected on the defendant, and execution can only issue on his person or property within the jurisdiction, cannot interfere with the sovereign rights of a foreign Power, as it would in an action for the title to or possession of land. An injury to land is in fact a personal injury to its owner, and is no more beyond the jurisdiction of an English Court, on general principles, than other personal injuries are.(b)

Service out of the jurisdiction of a writ of summons, (or in the case of a non-British subject, notice of the writ) is governed by Order XI. r. 1, of the Judicature Act Rules; which provides as follows:

"1. Service out of the jurisdiction of a writ of summons or notice of a writ of summons may be allowed by the Court or a judge whenever

- (a) The whole subject-matter of the action is land situate within the jurisdiction, with or without rents or profits.
- (b) Any act, deed, will, or contract, obligation or liability affecting land or hereditaments situate within the jurisdiction is sought to be construed, rectified, set aside, or enforced in the action.

It has been held that a contract to pay rent is not a contract, &c., "affecting land" within (b).(c) But where the action sought to recover compensation for tenant right according to the local custom under which the land was demised, it was held to be within the rule, and service out of the jurisdiction was ordered.(d)

(a) See, however, *Doulson v. Matthews*, 4 T. R. 503.

(b) See *The M. Moxham*, L. R. 1 P. D. 107, and *infra*, Chap. IX. (ii.).

(c) *Agnew v. Usher*, 14 Q. B. D. 78; decided on appeal on different grounds, 51 L. T. Rep. 752.

(d) *Kaye v. Sutherland*, 20 Q. B. D. 147.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

SUMMARY.

JURISDICTION AS TO REAL PROPERTY (INCLUDING
CHATELS REAL) SITUATE ABROAD.

p. 159. The jurisdiction over real or immovable property, abstracted from the acts and contracts of the persons who deal with it, belongs to the *forum situs* alone, which will administer the *lex situs* in exercising it.

And this general principle will prevent an action from being maintained in England for the possession of or property in foreign land, or discovery being obtained in aid of such action abroad, independently of any rule of procedure, such as those which formerly prevailed with respect to *venue*.

pp. 160-170. But where a personal equity, resulting either from a trust or a contract over which an English Court has jurisdiction, and not excluded by the law of the *situs*, attaches to an individual who is before the English Court or can be brought before it, the English Court will indirectly affect foreign land by acting *in personam*, i.e., upon the conscience of its own justiciable.

Thus, by the enforcement of such an equity, the title to the property in or the right to the possession of foreign land may be indirectly transferred.

p. 169. The mere fact that a contract relates to foreign land, or to the rights that are incident to its possession, will not exclude the jurisdiction of the English Court, if the contract is one with which it is otherwise competent to deal; at any rate, unless it is shown that the Courts of the *situs* have already and properly assumed jurisdiction over the claim.

pp. 170, 171. Where such an equity as that defined exists, the English Court will at its discretion restrain by injunction proceedings abroad with respect to the foreign land to which it relates.

p. 172. But it seems that where the equity is absolutely repugnant to the *lex situs*, the English Court will not enforce it, though it would have done so had the equity in question been merely non-existent by that law.

There is no direct authority to show that the jurisdiction over torts to foreign land, which the English Courts were formerly prevented from assuming by the rules relating to *venue*, is extended by the abolition of those rules; but an action founded on such a tort, being for personal damages only, might on general principles be maintained here.

Service out of the jurisdiction in actions affecting land is governed by Order XI. r. 1 (Judicature Acts). p. 177.

(ii.) *Nature and Incidents of Immovable Property and Realty.*

It has been already said that a general consent exists as to the principle that real or immovable property is subject exclusively to the law of the Government within whose territory it is situate. The authorities cited by Story for this general proposition are very numerous,^(a) but it will be more advantageous to consider what are the directions in which this *lex situs* is allowed exclusive operation, and how far it extends. It must be sufficiently apparent from the last section that there are many cases in which the exclusive action claimed for it is interfered with.

(a) *Nature of Realty.*—The *lex situs*, in the first place, must decide what things and appurtenances are so closely connected with the soil as to partake of the nature of realty, though not themselves *land* in anything but a legal sense. Of these some are so universally regarded in this light, as easements and rent-charges, for example, that no special mention need be made of them; but with regard to other things whose character is more doubtful, it is laid down by Story ^{*Lex situs decides what are immovables.*} (b) that the question is not so much what are, or ought to be deemed *ex sua natura*, movables, as what are deemed so by the law of the place where they are situated; and that to ascertain what is immovable property and what is not, recourse must be had in all cases to the *lex rei sitæ*. The English case cited by Mr. West-

(a) Story, *Conflict of Laws*, § 428.

(b) *Ibid.*, § 447.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

Distinction
between mov-
ables and per-
sonal estate.

lake (Priv. Int. Law, § 75) for the same principle (a) scarcely seems to bear out the proposition to its full extent, since the decision of Erskine, C.J., turned chiefly upon 5 Geo. II. c. 7, s. 4, which spoke of negroes as real estate, and not so much upon the fact that they were so by the law of Antigua, where they were situated. It may, however, be taken generally, that the decision of the *lex situs* is universally accepted on such questions. In *Chatfield v. Berchtoldt* (b) the question was whether a rent-charge *pur auter vie* issuing out of English land was liable to legacy duty as personal estate under the English statutes (14 Geo. II. c. 20, s. 9; 1 Vict. c. 26), which makes estates *pur auter vie* applicable as personal estate in the hands of executors and administrators, and it was held on appeal that legacy duty was payable on such rent-charge. The domicile of the testatrix being Hungarian, it was contended in opposition to the Crown that the character of personal property was so impressed by the several statutes upon the interest in question, as to make it for all intents and purposes personal property, attached to the domicile and person of the testatrix, and therefore exempt from legacy duty according to the principle of *Thomson v. Advocate-General*. (c) It was held, however, that the English law only made it personal property for the purpose of charging it with legacy duty, and that except in this limited respect, it remained realty. In the words of the judgment, it lay upon the respondent to show that by the law of England estates *pur auter vie* in land had been converted into pure personalty or movables, and he did not discharge this burden by showing that by some statutory provisions in some cases they are to be applied in the same manner as personal estate. But it was taken for granted throughout that the English law was the proper test by which to decide the real or personal nature of the interest in question. Almost the same point arose in *Freke v. Lord*

(a) *Ex parte Rucker*, 3 D. & Ch. 704; see *Smith v. Brown*, 2 Salk. 666.

(b) L. R. 7 Eq. 192; see also *Stewart v. Garnett*, 3 Sim. 398.

(c) 12 Cl. & F. 1; *Wallace v. Attorney-General*, L. R. 1 Ch. 1.

Carbery,^(a) where it was held that the validity of a testamentary disposition of an English leasehold was governed by the law of England, and not by that of the testator's domicile. In that case a testator domiciled in Ireland (to which the Thellusson Act does not extend) devised an English leasehold to trustees upon trust to sell and hold the proceeds upon certain trusts for accumulation invalid by the Thellusson Act; and it was held that these trusts were invalid so far as regarded the English leasehold, though valid as to the personal estate, which was to be regulated by the law of his domicile. It was contended that the English law regarded leasehold property as personal estate, and therefore remitted all questions concerning it to the decision of the law of the testator's domicile; but Lord Selborne pointed out that this principle, expressed in the Roman maxim "*mobilia sequuntur personam*," referred to movable property only, as distinguished from immovable; and that although for some purposes the English law regarded leaseholds as chattels, yet land, whether held for a chattel interest or held for a freehold interest, is, as a matter of fact, immovable and not movable. Lord Selborne further cited with approval the *dicta* of Story on this point, which have just been referred to, and there is now no doubt that it expresses the English law on the subject. The main difficulty in the matter arises from the loose employment of the terms "personal" and "movable" as synonymous. That they were so originally is of course evident from the maxim itself. *Mobilia sequuntur personam* may be freely translated, "movables are personal property," but the use of English law has attached a special and definite meaning to the term "personal estate," which differs materially from that more commonly given to it in international jurisprudence. This special meaning is pointed out by Jarman (on Wills, vol. i. p. 4, n.), who says: "The distinction between real and personal estate is peculiar to our own policy, and is not known to any foreign system of jurisprudence that is founded on the civil

(a) L. R. 16 Eq. 461.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

law, in which the only recognised distinction was between movable and immovable property. Leaseholds for years, therefore, which obviously belong to the latter denomination, though they are with us transmissible as personal estate, are governed by the *lex loci*, and do not follow the person; so that if an Englishman domiciled abroad dies possessed of such property, it will devolve according to the English law." Mr. Jarman's subsequent editors appear to have dissented from this proposition, citing 11 Jarm. Byth. Conv. 3rd ed. p. 15, Deane on Wills, p. 15, *Price v. Dewhurst*, 4 My. & Cr. 81, *Jerningham v. Herbert*, 4 Russ. 388, and *Pearmain v. Twiss*, 2 Giff. 136, as authorities for the ambiguously worded proposition that the *lex loci* must determine what part of the estate is real and what personal, and that then the *lex domicilii* comes in and determines the distribution of that part of the property which the *lex loci* has declared to be personal. All these authorities, however, plainly employ the word "personal" in the very sense against which Mr. Jarman's caution is meant to guard, and the point seemed at any rate to have been finally settled by Lord Selborne's judgment, just referred to, in the case of *Freke v. Lord Carbery*.^(a)

The same question, however, has since been again revived in the recent case of *Duncan v. Lawson*,^(b) where the Court was invited to distinguish *Freke v. Carbery*, on the ground that it had no express reference to devolution or succession. The attempt failed, and it was clearly laid down that, in a case of intestacy, English leaseholds devolved according to the English law (*i.e.*, the Statute of Distributions), and not according to the law of the domicile of the intestate, which in that case was Scotch. In other words, leaseholds are immovables for the purposes of succession, and are governed by the *lex loci*. The difficult question, whether this involves the proposition that the doctrine of *Birtwhistle v. Vardill* (c) applies to leaseholds

(a) L. R. 16 Eq. 461.

(b) L. R. 41 Ch. D. 394. See, to the same effect, *In the Goods of Gentili*, 1. R. 9 Eq. 541; and *De Fogapieras v. Duport*, 11 L. R. Ir. 123.

(c) 7 A. & F. 895.

as well as freeholds, and makes the right to succeed to leaseholds dependent upon birth in wedlock as well as legitimacy by the *lex domicilii*, will be found treated elsewhere.(a)

PART II.
PROPERTY.
CAP. VI.

The nature of realty being thus undoubtedly a question which the *lex situs* must decide, it may be added that almost all the incidents which arise in connection with it are to be referred to the same law.(b) Thus the liability for deterioration or waste, though it may by accident be enforceable elsewhere *in personam*, is to be decided and measured by the *lex situs*.(c) The rules of limitation and prescription, as applied to real property, come under this head, and may be mentioned here. Both are governed by the *lex situs*, for the simple reason that the *situs* is necessarily the *forum*. A statutory limitation absolutely extinguishes a right of action, irrespective of its merits, and, in relation to land, has the indirect effect of creating a good title, by providing the possessor with a valid defence to any action which may be brought to interfere with his possession. It is thus plainly something pertaining to the remedy, and being a question of procedure must in principle, as will be shown again hereafter, be governed entirely by the *lex fori*.(d) But it has been already stated that no action can be brought to interfere with the possession of realty except in the *forum* of the *situs*, so that the *lex fori* and the *lex situs* become identical. Similarly, *prescription* may be regarded as conferring a title generally to incorporeal rights in realty, directly, and not merely indirectly, by providing the possessor with a defence; and the rules of prescription are thus part of the law of property, of which the *lex situs* is the source. As,

Incidents of
immovables—
limitation and
prescription.

(a) See note on this subject at the end of Chap. VI. p. 214.

(b) *Nelson v. Bridport*, 5 Beav. 547, 570.

(c) *Bathyan v. Walford*, 36 Ch. D. 269. In this case the English Court declared "that the estate of the testator is liable for the amounts, if any, for which, by the law of Austria, the said estate or the allodial heirs of the testator is or are liable in respect of the deterioration of" (the land in question); and proceeded, "Let the plaintiff be at liberty to take such proceedings as he may be advised in the courts of Austria for the purpose of ascertaining the amount of any such liabilities."

(d) But as to this, see *Pitt v. Dacre*, L. R. 3 Ch. D. 295; *infra*, p. 184.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

however, an incorporeal right in immovables can never be effectually asserted except in the courts of the *situs*, the *lex fori* and the *lex situs* are again identical. Cases, however, may easily be conceived where a prescription or a limitation with regard to foreign immovables may be set up in an English court in answer to an attempt to enforce in an English court some such personal equity as that indicated by Lord Selborne in *Harrison v. Harrison*,^(a) cited above. The question will then arise whether the *lex fori*, in matters of prescriptions and limitations which affect real estate, is the proper law to be followed for its own sake, or only so long as it coincides with the *lex situs*? It seems clear on principle that if the rule of prescription appealed to is not merely and directly extinctive of the remedy sought, but is a law which affects directly to govern right and title in the immovable property concerned, then the *lex situs* is the proper law to govern as such. As to ordinary rules of limitation, which are not creative of title, except indirectly, the same reasoning hardly applies. The most successful editor of Wheaton (Mr. Dana) says of these rules ^(b): "As these statutes are rules of repose resting on the policy of the State, it seems reasonable that any State may apply them to all suits in which the aid of its tribunals is invoked, whether the parties are citizens or aliens; whether the thing in dispute is within or without the territory of the State, and be movable or immovable, corporeal or incorporeal. It is true that a statute of limitations indirectly operates upon title to property, and has the same effect in aid of the party sued as a defensive prescription; and so it may be argued that they belong to the laws of property and not of mere remedy; but it is impossible, in international law, to be governed by these indirect operations."

In a modern case ^(c) it was, however, apparently assumed by the Court that the law which regulates the prescription of actions as to real estate is not the *lex fori* but the *lex*

^(a) L. R. 8 Ch. 342.

^(b) Wheaton, Int. Law, § 143, n.

^(c) *Pitt v. Lord Dacre*, L. R. 3 Ch. D. 295.

loci rei sitæ. Funds had been paid into court representing the rents and profits of certain lands in Jamaica, out of which an annuity had been granted by will in 1810. The last payment on account of the annuity had been in 1842, and the personal representative of the annuitant claimed to be entitled to the funds in court to satisfy arrears of the annuity. It was held that the English Statute of Limitations did not apply to land in Jamaica, and that the claim of the personal representative of the annuitant was not barred by the lapse of time, although it was admitted that the *lex fori* regulated the prescription of actions which did not affect realty. (a) Hall, V.C., said, "There is no corresponding statute of limitations applicable to the island of Jamaica; and these annuitants are, in my judgment, as much entitled to recover their annuities as the estate itself, as they are only portions of the estate." No further notice of the conflict between the *lex fori* and the *lex situs* appears to have been taken. As to the question of the applicability of the *lex fori* to cases of prescription in personal actions, it will be discussed hereafter when treating of procedure; but it may here be mentioned that Westlake regards the conflict as still open for decision, while Story considers it conclusively settled in favour of the *lex fori*. (b) The question of the applicability of local laws of prescription and limitation to real or immovable property appears to arise most naturally in this form. It is conceded that a valid title to land can only be conferred or taken away by the *lex rei sitæ*. (c) It is equally indisputable that the manner and time of bringing an action, apart from any question of title to land, are regulated like other matters of procedure, by the *lex fori*. (d) The title to land can of course be only directly litigated in the *forum situs*, but in administering and enforcing personal equities, it may often happen that it becomes necessary to inquire into the title to foreign land in an English court. (e) The question

(a) Citing *Bucknaboye v. Mottickund*, 8 Moo. P. C. 4.

(b) Westlake, § 252; Story, §§ 576-581. (c) *Ante*, p. 161.

(d) *Infra*, Chap. X. (ii.).

(e) *Ante*, p. 161, sq.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

Prescription
as to foreign
land—how far
governed by
the *lex situs*.

which will then arise is, whether the local law of prescription or limitation has either conferred or taken away any title to the foreign land, or whether it has merely enacted a rule to regulate the procedure of its own Courts, which will not be binding upon those of another country? In the large majority of cases, such laws do purport either to create a title positively, or negatively to take a title away by preventing its assertion. When the title is positively created by a law of prescription, it is tolerably clear that a foreign Court cannot be justified in ignoring it, though its own laws of prescription would not have conferred it under the same circumstances. The matter is not quite so clear when the local law of limitation merely enacts that, after a certain lapse of time, no action to assert title shall be brought. A law which prohibits the assertion of title does, however, practically take it away, and vest it in some one else. No person can be said to have a valid title to land by the *lex rei sitæ* which that law does not permit him to assert in its own courts. When a law takes away a remedy altogether, it virtually destroys the right to which such remedy is attached. To abolish a remedy is not to regulate it; and the right to regulate the remedy is all that the *lex fori* can reasonably claim. There may conceivably be cases where a law of limitation is so framed as to apply, and to be intended to apply, to procedure alone; but in the majority of instances this will not be so; and subject to this exception, it is submitted that the provisions of the *lex rei sitæ* as to the period of limitation applicable to immovables should be universally followed.

Liability of
foreign land
to debts of
owner.

With regard to the liability of foreign immovables to the debts of the owner, the *lex situs*, apart from any consideration of an equity affecting him, is alone entitled to be heard. In *Harrison v. Harrison*,^(a) on appeal from the Master of the Rolls, where a Scotch heir had elected to take Scotch lands by descent in opposition to

(a) *Harrison v. Harrison*, L. R. 8 Ch. 342; *Drummond v. Drummond*, 6 Bro. P. C. 601; *Elliott v. Minto*, 6 Madd. 16; *Carron Iron Co. v. Mac-laren*, 5 H. L. C. 416.

an English will, the domicile of the testator being English, and the will itself being ineffectual to pass real estate in Scotland, it was decided that the liability of the Scotch real estate to the payment of debts, as between the heir and the pecuniary legatees, must be determined by the law of Scotland, and not by the law of the country where the estate was being administered. In that case Lord Selborne said, "The doctrine of marshalling, as applied in favour of legatees against heirs-at-law taking descended real estates in England, is part of the *lex loci* of England affecting those real estates, and no question of conflict of law can arise under those circumstances. It is a wholly different thing when persons, who have an interest in the personal estate only, endeavour indirectly to establish in their own favour, or for their own relief, a burthen upon real estate situate in another country, which, by the law of that country, would not be administered so as to give them what they ask. . . . It is admitted, as I understand, that the burthen of liability to debt, so far as relates to real estate, can only be created by the *lex loci rei sitæ*; but it is suggested that the burthen may be laid on real estate, on which it is not imposed by the *lex loci rei sitæ*, by an indirect equity in favour of the legatees. . . . What is that equity? There is no fiduciary relation. What right have these legatees, upon the footing of personal equity, to say that the heir shall not enjoy the Scotch real estate as the law of Scotland gives it to him, or that any burthen shall directly or indirectly be thrown upon that real estate in their favour, which would not be imposed by the law of Scotland?"(a) Similarly it was decided in an old case that the question of a creditor's lien on real estate was to be determined by the *lex situs*.(b) It may be added that a heritable Scotch bond in the possession of an English testator is real estate, and descends to his heir-at-law,(c) being regarded as an

Scotch heritable bonds.

(a) L. R. 8 Ch. 348.

(b) *Scott v. Nesbitt*, 14 Ves. 438.

(c) *Johnston v. Baker*, 4 Madd. 474, n.; *Buodcluch v. Hoare*, 4 Madd. 467; *Allen v. Anderson*, 5 Hare, 163.

PART II.
PROPERTY.
CAP. VI.

integral part of the Scotch land which is bound by it to satisfy the debt. Nor does the fact that a personal obligation is inserted in such bonds alter their nature, the personal security being regarded as a mere adjunct to the heritable security.(a) The case is different where the heritable bond is not an asset in the possession of the testator or intestate, but a bond given by him to some one else, and remaining after his death as a debt due from his estate, as well as a charge upon the Scotch land on which it was given. Thus, in *Maxwell v. Maxwell*,(b) where an English testator charged his personal residuary estate with payment of "all his just debts," and after the date of his will borrowed £14,000 on Scotch lands, for which he gave a heritable bond, it was held that the expression "all my just debts" in the will, interpreted by the *lex domicilii* of the testator, included the charge on the Scotch land, and that the residuary personal estate was liable to payment of the £14,000 in exoneration of the Scotch realty. The Scotch heir, who took by intestacy (the will not affecting Scotch lands) was therefore not put to his election. It will be seen that this case, though from one point of view the converse of *Jerningham v. Herbert*,(c) depends in substance upon totally different principles. That case shows that a heritable bond in the possession of the testator, a charge on somebody else's Scotch land, is in reality regarded as a portion of that land, and is not included in a bequest of the testator's personal estate like other *choses in action*, although the debt which it secures is *also* due on a personal bond. *Maxwell v. Maxwell*, on the contrary, decided that where the testator had *given* such a heritable bond, charging his Scotch land, the debt secured by it was within the meaning of the phrase "all my just debts," as used in his will. The first case was decided on the ground that the *lex situs* must decide what is realty and what is not, and what is sufficient to pass it; the second on the

(a) *Jerningham v. Herbert*, 4 Russ. 388.

(b) L. R. 4 H. L. 501; S. C. *sub voc. Maxwell v. Hyslop*, L. R. 4 Eq. 407.

(c) 4 Russ. 388.

ground that the *lex domicilii* must be called in to interpret a testator's intention.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

Scotch heritable bond—
effect of
collateral
security.

It has just been said that the fact of a personal obligation being inserted in a Scotch heritable bond does not alter its nature, but that it descends notwithstanding to the heir-at-law. But if the personal obligation be contained in a separate instrument, so that the debt due to the testator was secured both by a Scotch heritable bond charging it on his debtor's land, and a personal security given by the debtor, the personal security may be disposed of by a will in the form of the domicile, and the heir will thus lose the benefit of the Scotch heritable bond, as the debt secured by it may be paid to the executor or legatee under the will. This has been held not only where the personal bonds were specifically devised by the will,^(a) but also where the testator had devised generally to his executors "all his moneys, securities for money, chattels, and other personal estate."^(b) The principles on which these decisions should be distinguished from those cases in which it has been held that a Scotch heritable bond is realty to which the Scotch heir is entitled, may perhaps be best stated in this way. Where a heritable bond alone is taken by the testator on lending his money, he is regarded as having in effect laid out that money in the purchase of Scotch land. But where he takes a personal bond as well, the debt due to him is regarded as still a *chose in action*, which still, therefore, forms part of his personal estate.

The judgment in *Cust v. Goring*, delivered by Lord Romilly, forms a convenient summary of the previous cases on the subject, and may be quoted with advantage: "This is a case in which the determination of which system of law is to prevail depends less upon principle than upon authority. In order, therefore, to determine whether the Scotch or English law shall prevail in this case, it is necessary to consider the authorities affecting

Cust v. Goring.

(a) *Buckleugh v. Hoare*, 4 Madd. 467. (b) *Cust v. Goring*, 18 Beav. 383.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

cases of this description, which I will do in their order. The first I think necessary to mention is *Brodie v. Barry*, 2 Ves. & B. 36. It is very distinguishable from this case. There the testator had by his will purported to dispose of his Scotch real estate, but the will not being in conformity with the solemnities required by the Scotch law, was inoperative for this purpose. The question then was whether this raised a question of election against the Scotch heir, who was a legatee under the will. Sir W. Grant held that this was analogous to the case of a will purporting to dispose of copyholds not surrendered to the use of the will, and that therefore, as the will, in the case of copyholds, could be read against the customary heir, so also, in that case, the will could be read against the heir of the Scotch estates: the effect of which was, that he was put to his election. No contest arose between English and Scotch securities for the same debt. There was in that case no question but that the will did not affect the debt, or any instrument affecting to secure it.

"The next case is that of *Johnstone v. Baker*, 4 Madd. 474, n. That also was a case where the heritable bond was the only security given, which bond did not pass by the will of the testator, and which is, therefore, distinguishable from the present case.

"The *Duchess of Buccleuch v. Hoare* (4 Madd. 467), before Sir John Leach, did raise a question between English and Scotch instruments given to secure the same debt. In that case the testator had advanced sums of money to the Duke of Buccleuch and the Duke of Montague, on two several occasions, which sums were secured by two Scotch heritable bonds and by two ordinary English money bonds. The testator, by his will, reciting that he was possessed of two bonds or obligations, of the Dukes of Buccleuch and Montague, bequeathed them to his executors, upon certain trusts specified in the will. The Court held that the will passed the debt, and that the heir was a trustee for the legatee.

"In *Jerningham v. Herbert* (4 Russ. 388), before Sir John

Leach, no contest arose between English and Scotch securities. That was the case of a Scotch heritable bond given to secure a debt, which, although it also contained a personal obligation to pay the debt, as a part of the same instrument, was held not to pass by a will which affected English property only. It does not therefore, as it appears to me, to govern this question.

"*Allen v. Anderson* (5 Hare, 163), before Sir James Wigram, was the case of a testator who at the time of making his will was a creditor for a large sum of money, apparently not secured by any instrument whatever. Subsequently to the date of his will, a Scotch heritable bond was given to secure his debt, which bond was not affected by the will. The Court held, that the heir was not a trustee for the legatees under the will, and that he was not put to his election. That case also is very distinguishable from the present. It seems to me to have been analogous to the simple case of a testator laying out money in the purchase of land subsequently to the date of his will. The testator took a heritable bond as a security for the debt, which heritable bond did not pass by the will. If he had taken real estates in England, in exchange for the debt, it would not have passed by the will, and would in that case have been in all respects analogous to the case which actually occurred; and in the case last supposed it is obvious that, according to the principle of English law, the heir could not have been put to his election.

"In *Drummond v. Drummond* (Roberts, on Personal Security, p. 209), before the House of Lords, and commented upon by Sir W. Grant in *Brodie v. Barry*, there was no contest between securities. The contest was, whether the English personal estates or the Scotch real estates, should be applied to discharge a heritable bond granted by the testator on his Scotch estates; and it was there held, that the Scotch law was to govern the question, inasmuch as the rights of a person to real property must depend upon the law of the country where it was situated; and consequently, that the person who

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

took the Scotch real estate must take it with the burthen upon it, that estate being by the Scotch law the primary fund for the payment of the bond. . . . The only distinction between *Buccleuch v. Hoare* and the present case rests on this, that there the testator had, by his will, specifically bequeathed the English securities for the debt. In this case the testator has not specified the securities, but he has disposed of his personal property in general terms. The description, however, of the property bequeathed, contains the words 'securities for money' which obviously includes the bond in question. But I think that this specific mention is not essential to the case. The English bond was the primary security for the debt; it was never cancelled; and it was not merged in or extinguished by the Scotch bond, which was given as an additional security."(*a*)

SUMMARY.

(ii.) NATURE AND INCIDENTS OF REAL OR IMMOVABLE PROPERTY.

p 179. The *lex rei sitæ* is entitled to determine what is, and what is not, real or immovable property.

The *lex rei sitæ* may accordingly impress the character of personality upon the *res sita* for its own purposes (as pp. 180, 181. for the payment of legacy duty), without abandoning its claim to regard the same *res sita* as realty or immovable property for the purposes of international law. The *lex rei sitæ*, in calling the *res sita* personalty, does not thereby convert it into movable personalty. Movables and personalty are not equivalent terms.

The *lex rei sitæ* will generally prevail as to questions of limitation and prescription in their application to real or immovable property, inasmuch as these naturally arise pp. 183-186. only in the *forum rei sitæ*. There is some authority for saying that the *lex rei sitæ* will also prevail when such

(*a*) *Cust v. Goring*, 18 Beav. 383.

questions arise in a foreign court; but among jurists there is some conflict of opinion on the point, the *lex fori* asserting its claim to deal with the matter as pertaining to the remedy.

PART II.
PROPERTY.
CAP. VI.

The *lex rei sitæ* will determine the liability of real or immovable property for the debts of its deceased owner testate or intestate, and the obligation of the heir in respect of those debts. But this principle may be modified, (i.) by the rule that the construction of a will depends upon the law of the domicile of the deceased; (ii.) by a personal equity affecting the heir. pp. 187-192.

(iii.) *Transfer of Immovable Property inter vivos.*

It is firmly established, that both as regards the capacity of transferring, and the necessary forms to effect the transfer, of land, the *lex situs* is alone competent to speak. (a) With respect to formalities, the rule has been recently recognised and followed, in a case where it was held that a conveyance not under seal, executed in England, of the right of shooting over Scotch lands, was governed by Scotch and not by English law. (b) As regards the question of capacity, there is a dearth of English decisions, and Mr. Westlake (Priv. Int. Law, § 89) shows an inclination to refer to it, even with respect to the transfer of realty, to the *lex domicilii* of the person, rather than to the *lex situs*. It has been pointed out in a previous chapter that English law as to the proper test for determining the capacity of a person, with reference to a particular act, is in an unsatisfactory state; (c) but it can hardly be supposed that the fact of an Englishman being domiciled in Prussia, where majority is not attained until the age of twenty-five, would be sufficient to invalidate a conveyance by him of English land made when he was twenty-four. This is, however, a proposition for which numerous jurists, who advocate the claims of the domi-

Capacity for
transfer.

(a) Story, Conflict of Laws, §§ 430, 436 a; see the cases cited, *ibid.*: 428, n. 3.

(b) *Adams v. Lutterbuck*, 10 Q. B. D. 403.

(c) Chap. III.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Transfer of
Immovables.*Formalities
of transfer.

ciliary law, are prepared to contend; (a) but the language of Abbott, C.J., in *Birtwhistle v. Vardill*, (b) may be quoted to show how untenable it must be considered. "The rule as to the law of the domicile has never been extended to real property. . . . Is there any authority that the law of England, as to any lands in England, is to adopt the law of a foreign country?" (c)

As to the formalities required to make a valid transfer, there is a greater abundance of decisions. Transfer *inter vivos* of real estate, by English law, must be governed as to the formalities which accompany it, by the *lex rei sitæ* alone. (d) In *Robinson v. Bland* (e) Lord Mansfield said: "In every disposition or contract where the subject-matter relates locally to England, the law of England must govern, and must have been intended to govern. Thus . . . as to conveyances or wills of land, the *local nature of the thing requires them to be carried into execution according to the law here.*" *Waterhouse v. Stansfield* (f) was a case where the effect of the law in Demerara was considered as to land there situate, purporting to restrain the alienation by a debtor of any immovable property without the assent of his creditors, express or implied, and without certain prescribed forms, intended to secure this object; and it was held that such a law must prevail to exclude the claim of an English assignee of the equitable interest in such land. Turner, V.C., said: "When the law of a foreign country places a restraint upon the alienation of the property of a debtor situate in such country, an equity arising here on a contract entered into in respect of such property cannot be enforced against the *lex loci rei sitæ.*"

Restraints on
transfer.

The restraint spoken of in the case last cited was, as has been said, only conditional, depending upon the neglect or employment of the forms prescribed by the *lex situs.*

(a) See Story, *Conflict of Laws*, §§ 432 *sq.*, 51 *sq.*

(b) 5 B. & C. 451.

(c) As to the recent alteration in the law regarding the capacity of aliens, see 33 & 34 Vict. c. 14, *ante*, p. 13.

(d) 2 D'warris on Stat. 648; *Warrender v. Warrender*, 9 Bligh, 127.

(e) 2 Burr. 1079.

(f) 10 Hare, 254.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Transfer of
Immovables.*

It is to be observed, however, that all restraints imposed by that law, which determines generally the effect and operation of any attempt at the transfer of realty, are to be accepted as binding; and that such restraints only bind within the territorial limits of the authority which imposed them. Thus the English Statute of Mortmain does not apply to land within the colonies, which was decided in *Whicker v. Hume*,^(a) upon the authority of Sir W. Grant in *Attorney-General v. Stewart*,^(b) though the case turned more upon the intention of the Legislature, and the policy of the law of mortmain generally, than upon the strictness of the theory of the intra-territorial operation of all laws regulating the disposition of immovables. Nor do they apply to land in Scotland; but where a will was made in England, and according to English form, by a domiciled Scotchman, bequeathing money to trustees to *purchase lands* (without saying where), and pay over the rents for charitable purposes to persons resident in Scotland, the bequest was held void under the Statute of Mortmain, there being nothing in the words to show that a purchase of anything but English lands was contemplated.^(c)

In *Renaud v. Tourangeau* ^(d) the effect of an attempt at restriction of all alienation for twenty years, by a Canadian testator, was discussed with reference to Canadian land; and though it was suggested in argument, by way of analogy, that such a restriction would be bad by English law, even if there had been a gift over, it was assumed throughout that the real question was, whether such a restraint on the alienation of Canadian land was bad or good by the law of Canada. It is true that Lord Romilly said in his judgment that it would be invalid, not only by the old French law, prevailing in Lower Canada, but by the general principles of jurisprudence; but it is plain that all that was meant by this latter expression was to

^(a) 7 H. L. C. 124.^(b) 2 Meriv. 143.^(c) *Attorney-General v. Mill*, 3 Russ. 328; *Curtis v. Hutton*, 14 Ves.^(d) L. R. 2 P. C. 4.

PART II. signify those rules of public policy which must be taken
 PROPERTY. as part of the Common Law in every part of the British
 CAP. VI. Empire.

SUMMARY.

(iii.) TRANSFER OF IMMOVABLE PROPERTY INTER VIVOS.

P. 193. The *lex situs* determines all questions relating to the transfer of real estate.

Thus (*inter alia*), it determines the capacity of the parties to the transfer.

[There is, however, little *direct* authority on this point, and jurists show a tendency to decide capacity on this, as on all other matters, by the *lex domicilii*.]

PP. 194, 195. The formalities of the transfer, and the restrictions on the freedom of alienation, are similarly decided by the same law.

(iv.) *Succession to Immovable Property by Will.*

Formalities
 of wills of
 immovables.

It is hardly necessary to state that the principle that conveyances *inter vivos* of realty must comply with the formalities required by the *lex situs*, applies *à fortiori* to all alienations of real property by will.(a) But a will, though not executed so as to pass real estate, may be read for the purpose of discovering in it an implied condition respecting real estate, annexed to a gift of personal property, and thus in *Brodie v. Barry*,(b) a Scotch heir-at-law, who was entitled to personal property under a will made in English form, was put to his election. Exactly the reverse case occurred in *Dundas v. Dundas*,(c) where the heir-at-law of real estate in England, which the testator had attempted to devise by a will in Scotch form, imperfect to carry out the intention, was put to his approbate or reprobate of the will as it stood. Where the heir-at-law,

(a) *Coppin v. Coppin*, 2 P. Wms. 291; *Curtis v. Hutton*, 14 Ves. 537; *Bovey v. Smith*, 1 Vern. 85; *Drummond v. Drummond*, 3 Bro. P. C. Toml. 601.

(b) 2 Ves. & B. 127.

(c) 2 Dow & Cl. 349.

in such a case, elects to take by inheritance in opposition to the will, it has been already shown that no personal equity attaches to him, by which the foreign realty can be affected by the law of the English court as to marshalling in favour of legatees, (a) the mere fact that he is before the Court as a party to the suit not warranting any interference as to the foreign real estate, with the *lex loci rei sitæ*. Such an equity results, however, from the expressed intention of the testator, according to the interpretation of his will by the domiciliary law, (b) and therefore though the English will of a domiciled Englishman may not be available to devise Scotch land, yet the heir to whom it would go on intestacy cannot share in other benefits under the will, if he defeat the intention of the testator as to the land by taking advantage of the invalidity of the will to pass it to the devisee. In such a case, therefore, he is put to his election; but the intention of the testator to pass the foreign land by his will must clearly appear, and it has been held that *general expressions* will not, as a rule, be sufficient to show that intention. (c) General words of intention will be intended to apply to such property only as would by its nature pass by the will, and to the uses therein expressed. (d) Or, as Lord Cranworth expressed it in a more modern case, (e) the designation of the subject intended to be affected by the instrument in general words imports *prima facie* that property only upon which the instrument is capable of operating. To affect foreign land indirectly by a will not executed according to the *lex situs*, by putting the heir to his election, the foreign property must be either specifically devised, as in *Brodie v. Barry* (f) or there must be at any rate words from which the intention to act on it can be unequivocally gathered. These principles have been fully recognised in the later cases, an heir of foreign

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Succession to
Immovables.*Equities
affecting heir
or devisee.Foreign heir
—when put
to his election.(a) *Harrison v. Harrison*, L. R. 8 Ch. 342; ante, p. 164.(b) *Maxwell v. Maxwell*, L. R. 4 H. L. 501.(c) *Johnson v. Telford*, 1 Russ. & My. 254; *Allen v. Anderson*, 5 Hare, 163.(d) Per Sir J. Leach in *Johnson v. Telford*.(e) *Maxwell v. Maxwell*, 2 De G. M. & G. 705. (f) 2 Ves. & B. 131.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Succession to
Immovables.*

immovables being put to his election by a will not in itself operating upon them, only where there was a personal equity affecting him with reference to them, arising from the expressed intention of the testator or in any other manner. Thus, in *Dewar v. Mailland*,^(a) a will devised lands in England to the testator's son and heir for life, remainder to trustees, and also lands in St. Kitts to the same trustees upon trust to sell and invest the proceeds in lands in England, to hold on the same trusts. The will was executed according to the English law only, and did not operate so as to pass the land in St. Kitts, but the heir-at-law having received the rents of the St. Kitts estates during his life, his infant heir was held bound by such election after his death, so as to be debarred from setting up his title as heir of the lands in question against the title of the trustees, who had contracted to sell the property to a stranger. So in *Orrell v. Orrell*,^(b) where a testator devised, "all the residue of my real estate situate in any part of the United Kingdom or elsewhere," having real estate in Scotland as well as England, the heir-at-law taking the Scotch lands was put to his election, it being held that the testator had sufficiently indicated his intention to dispose of his real estate in Scotland as far as he was able to do so; notwithstanding the general rule that without clear evidence of intention, a testator will be supposed only to be dealing with what he can dispose of by the instrument whose construction is in question. Except, however, so far as it is affected by such a personal equity as that involved in the doctrine of election, a will of foreign realty must comply strictly with the *lex loci rei sitæ*, and with that law alone; and it was decided long ago^(c) that the English Court of Chancery would not direct an issue to try the validity of a will of lands in one of the colonies, which have distinct local laws of their own. And it has been decided that the provisions of 20 & 21 Vict. c. 77, which authorise the citing of the heir-

^(a) L. R. 2 Eq. 834.^(c) *Pike v. Hoare*, 2 Ed. 182.^(b) L. R. 6 Ch. 302.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Succession to
Immovables.*

at-law or persons interested in the real estate, when contentious proceedings arise as to the validity of a will, and by which the probate of a will granted after such litigation is to enure to the benefit of all persons interested in the real estate affected by the will, are not applicable to wills which in whole or in part have not been executed in accordance with the Wills Act (1 Vict. c. 26). (a) These statutory provisions cannot be employed, therefore, when the testator was not domiciled in England, and his will was executed so as only to satisfy the requirements of the law of his domicile, in order to bind indirectly immovable property in England by a will not executed in accordance with the *lex situs*. The construction, however, of wills is in all cases a matter for the law of the domicile alone, even when the destination of immovables situate in some country other than that of the domicile is affected by it. (b)

It will be seen below, when the succession to movables under a will or intestacy is considered (Chap. VII.), that the legitimacy of a child depends for the purposes of such succession upon the law of its domicile at birth. (c) that is, of the father's domicile at that time. (d) The question may arise, whether the same test is to be applied in the case of a devise of English land "to the children of A.;" or whether the *lex situs* is to prevail, and the principle of *Birtwhistle v. Vardill* applied. On the one hand, all the authorities cited in the preceding pages may be relied upon, which show that the *lex situs* governs as to all matters connected with the transfer of immovables; in addition to the undoubted fact (*infra*, p. 202) that for the purpose of *inheriting* English land the heir must be legitimate by English law as well as by the law of his

Will of immovable—meaning of the word "child" in devise.

(a) *Campbell v. Lucy*, L. R. 2 P. & D. 209.

(b) *Trotter v. Trotter*, 4 Bligh, N. S. 502; S. C. 3 Wils. & S. 407; *Enoch v. Wylie*, 10 H. L. C. 1.

(c) *Re Goodman's Trusts*, 17 Ch. D. 266; 50 L. J. Ch. 425, overruling *Boyes v. Bedale*, 1 H. & M. 798.

(d) In cases of legitimisation *per subsequens matrimonium*, the child must be legitimate by the law of the father's domicile, not only at the time of the birth, but at the time of the subsequent marriage: *Re Grove, Vaucher v. Treasury*, 40 Ch. D. p. 216; *ante*, p. 62.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Succession to
Immovables.*

domicil. On the other side, the language of James, L.J., in *Goodman's Trusts* (*supra*) speaks in no uncertain words. "There is, of course, no doubt as to what the English law as to an English child is. . . . But the question is, What is the rule which the English law adopts and applies to a non-English child? This is a question of international comity and international law. According to that law as recognised, and that comity as practised in all other civilised communities, the status of a person, his legitimacy or illegitimacy, is to be determined everywhere by the law of the country of his origin—the law under which he was born. It appears to me that it would require a great force of argument derived from legal principles, or great weight of authority, clear and distinct, to justify us in holding that our comity stands in this respect aloof in barbarous insularity from the rest of the civilised world."

It must be remembered, in considering this question, that until the decision of the Court of Appeal in the case last cited (1880), the principle of applying the law of the domicil of the successor to decide his legitimacy was not recognised at all, even with respect to movables; and Story's statement of the English law on this point must be read as the expression only of the earlier English cases on the subject.^(a) It is now, however, clear that both with regard to testacy and intestacy, the legitimacy of the successor to movables depends upon his personal law. It is submitted that there is no reason why the same test should not be applied in the case of a *devise* of English land. There may at first sight appear something inconsistent in applying the *lex situs* to a case of inheriting land as heir, and the *lex domicilii* when the question is of the legitimacy of a devisee, but the cases are really different in principle. In the case of heirship, the question is what sort of heir the *lex situs* demands. In the case of a devise "to the children of A.," the question

Legitimacy
of devise—
may perhaps
be referred to
lex domicilii.

^(a) Story, Conf. § 479 h; *Enoch v. Wylie*, 10 H. L. Cas. 1; *Boyes v. Bedale*, 1 H. & M. 798.

is what sort of children the testator intended. "*Heirship* is an incident of land, depending on local law, the law of the country, the county, the manor, and even of the particular property itself, the *forma doni*. *Kinship* is an incident of the person, and universal." (a) Legitimacy is an incident of kinship and was, in fact, the very incident of kinship, of which James, L.J., was speaking in the words quoted.

PART II.
PROPERTY.
CAP. VI.

The question has not been expressly decided, but inasmuch as *Birtwhistle v. Vardill* (b) (the case which established that an heir to English land must be born in wedlock) was a case of heirship, not of devise, it is submitted that it is no authority against the view suggested. A devise of English land "to the heir of A." would of course be a very different thing; and could hardly be construed otherwise than as a devise to that person, who was regarded as the heir by the law of the *situs*.

SUMMARY.

(iv.) SUCCESSION TO IMMOVABLE PROPERTY BY WILL.

The *lex situs* decides the capacity of the testator to p. 196. devise immovable estate (see, however, the qualification of the rule just stated as to the capacity to transfer *inter vivos*), the formalities of the testamentary instrument, and its operation upon the land which it affects to devise.

But where a testator intends and attempts to devise p. 197. immovable estate by a will not effectual to do so by the *lex situs*, the heir of the immovable estate will not be permitted to take a bequest of movable personal estate under the will, and to defeat the same will as to the land. In such a case, he will be put to his election whether he will accept the will for all purposes or for none.

The liability of his foreign immovable estate to the pp. 197, 195. personal debts of the testator depends upon the *lex situs* alone, where no intention on the part of the testator to

(a) From judgment of James, L.J., in *Goodman's Trusts*, *supra*.

(b) 7 Cl. & F. 895.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

interfere with that law appears; and the law of his domicile cannot impose any burden upon such foreign immovable estate from which by its own law it is exempt.

p. 197. The intention of the testator to devise or burden foreign land by a will insufficient by the *lex situs* to do so, must, in order to impose a personal equity on the heir, be unequivocally expressed. General words, which might be satisfied by a different interpretation, will not be construed as evidence of such an intention.

p. 199. The construction of wills, even when foreign land may be indirectly affected by it, is for the law of the testator's domicile alone.

pp. 199-201. It is uncertain whether the legitimacy of a devisee of land is to be decided by the *lex situs*, or by the law of his domicile (as in the case of movables). The *lex domicilii* appears preferable on theoretical grounds.

Hitherto the transfer of immovable property in accordance with the wish of its owner, expressed either in a conveyance *inter vivos*, or by a testamentary disposition, has been spoken of. Land, however, changes owners under certain circumstances without any expressed intention on the part of the owner, by the mere operation of law. It will be necessary to consider what law operates, and how far it excludes all others, in the alienation of land either (v.) by succession on intestacy, or (vi.) by assignment on bankruptcy, or (vii.) by operation of marriage.

Inheritance of immovables. (v.) *Succession to Immovable Property on Intestacy*.—It has already been stated, in treating of the question of legitimacy, that the English law requires an heir to English land to be legitimate by the law of the *situs* as well as by that of his domicile.^(a) Not only is this question to be decided by the former law, but the destination of the property is determined in all other respects by it.^(b) The question in *Birtwhistle v. Vardill*, before which deci-

(a) *Doe d. Birtwhistle v. Vardill*, 7 Cl. & F. 895; and see *supra*, p. 60. On the question whether this special legitimacy is required for succession to *chattels real*, see note to this chapter, pp. 214-224.

(b) *Jarman on Wills*, p. 2.

sion the law on this point can hardly be regarded as settled, was whether a child born in Scotland, of parents domiciled there, before their marriage, being admittedly legitimate by the law of Scotland, was legitimate for the purpose of taking English lands by inheritance; and after two arguments before the House of Lords, it was solemnly decided that he was not, since an heir must be, in Lord Coke's words, "*ex justis nuptiis procreatus; nam heres legitimus est quem nuptiæ demonstrant.*" It has been already pointed out that this decision was arrived at in opposition to the opinion of Lord Brougham, and that it is in conflict with the view taken on the question of legitimacy by the jurists of almost all other nations; but the general rule, that the succession to real estate is governed in all respects by the *lex loci rei sitæ*, is established by it for all practical purposes. In the words of Wheaton (Elements of International Law, § 80), the "law of the place where real property is situate governs exclusively as to the tenure, the title, and the descent of such property," while the English law alone, when it speaks as the *lex situs*, demands that the heir should be legitimate by the law of his domicil as well. And on the same principle, it has been decided that although a son legitimised *per subsequens matrimonium* by the law of his domicil has the personal *status* of legitimacy, yet upon his death without issue his father cannot inherit English land from him (under 3 & 4 Will. IV. c. 106). (a)

The law of the *situs* similarly decides the nature of the succession to immovable property, and its incidents. Thus a heritable Scotch bond in the possession of an English testator is real estate, and in the absence of a will effectual to pass Scotch realty, descends to his heir-at-law. (b) And where a Scotch heir elected to take Scotch realty by descent in opposition to an English will, it was held by Lord Selborne that the doctrine of marshalling did not

(a) *Re Don's Estate*, 27 L. J. Ch. 98.

(b) *Buckleuch v. Hoare*, 4 Madd. 467; *Johnstone v. Baker*, 4 Madd. 474, n.; *Jerningham v. Herbert*, 4 Russ. 388.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Succession to
Immovables.*Equities
affecting heir.

apply, and that the incidents of the succession to the Scotch realty were governed by the *lex loci rei sitæ* alone.(a) In the case last cited, Lord Selborne says, "In our judgment all questions as to the burdens and liabilities of real estate situate in a foreign country, in the absence of any trust or personal contract (which might make a difference), depend simply upon the law of the country where the real estate exists." So where the heir of a Scotch estate filed a bill in England to have his estate exonerated from a heritable bond by the application of personal estate in England, Sir J. Leach held that the question whether he had an equity to be exonerated was to be determined by the *lex loci rei sitæ*, and not by the law of the country where the personal estate happened locally to be.(b) Almost exactly the same question had previously arisen in *Drummond v. Drummond*; (c) but it appeared there that the intestate had been domiciled in England at the time of his death, which was not stated to have been the case in *Elliott v. Minto*. The decision there also was in favour of the *lex loci rei sitæ*. In another case, cited by Sir W. Grant at the same time as *Drummond v. Drummond*, the Scotch heir was also one of the next of kin, and claimed his share in the personalty of the intestate, who had died domiciled in England. By the Scotch law, he was not entitled to do so except on condition of collating or bringing into hotchpot the real estate, so as to form one common subject of division; but it was held that the English law was to be followed, and that he was entitled to share in the personalty without fulfilling this condition.(d) The real analogy between this case and that of *Drummond v. Drummond* is perhaps not very close, but it appears correct enough to say that the conditions on which a man is to share in personalty must be prescribed by the law of the intestate's domicil alone.(e) In *Drum-*

(a) *Harrison v. Harrison*, L. R. 8 Ch. 342, 346.(b) *Elliott v. Minto*, 6 Madd. 16.(c) Cited in *Brodie v. Barry*, 2 Ves. & B. 131.(d) *Balfour v. Scott*, 6 Bro. P. C. 550; 5 Ves. 750; S.C. in *Brodie v. Barry*, 2 Ves. & B. 131.(e) *Infra*, Chap. VII. (iii.)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Succession to
Immovables.*

mond v. Drummond the question was not as to the conditions under which the next of kin, who happened to be also the heir to the Scotch estate, was to take the English personalty (as in *Balfour v. Scott*); but as to the right of the heir to the Scotch estate, in that character, to have his estate exonerated from debts to which it alone was liable by Scotch law. Upon the general principle expressed in the *dictum* of Lord Selborne, just cited, that all questions as to the burdens and liabilities of real estate situate in a foreign country are to be referred to the law of the country where the real estate is situate, (a) there can be no doubt that the decisions in *Elliott v. Minto* and *Drummond v. Drummond* were right. The latter case was indeed cited with approval by Lord Hatherley, in a case which went comparatively recently before the House of Lords. (b) In *Maxwell v. Maxwell*, a domiciled Englishman, by a testamentary disposition in the Scotch form, gave certain real estate in Scotland, and by a subsequent will in the English form, after declaring that the trusts of his present will should not affect the Scotch estate, nor put to his election any person who should claim under both instruments, gave the residue of his estate upon trusts for sale and payment of "all his just debts" and legacies. He subsequently charged the Scotch estate with a debt of £14,000, by means of a Scotch heritable bond, and purchased other real estate in Scotland, which passed by intestacy to his heir. It was held, first, that the residuary estate was liable to payment of the £14,000 in exoneration of the Scotch estate—thus adopting the interpretation of the *lex domicilii* as to the expression "all my just debts"—and secondly, that the Scotch heir, who took something under the will, was not bound to elect, but had the same right to the real property that he would have had if there had been no will. "We have not here," said Lord Hatherley, (c) "a case like that of *Drummond v. Drum-*

Foreign land
not burdened
except by the
lex situs.(a) *Harrison v. Harrison*, L. R. 8 Ch. 346.(b) *Maxwell v. Maxwell*, L. R. 4 H. L. 501; S. C. *sub voc. Maxwell v. Hyslop*, L. R. 4 Eq. 407.

(c) At p. 514.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Succession to
Immovables.*Foreign heir
—when put to
his election.

mond, in which, there being a charge on land in Scotland which was the debt of the intestate, and there being also personal property of the intestate, the property of the intestate was administered according to English law, England being the country of his domicile. There the Court held that the person himself—the *præpositus*—had expressed no intention, but had left his property to be disposed of as the law might direct, as affecting his two classes of property. The law would apply his Scotch estate according to the existing law in Scotland. That would involve the necessity of the Scotch creditors taking his remedy out of the Scotch estate, and the necessity, therefore, of the heir to the Scotch estate bearing that burden; and the consequence would be that the person entitled to the personal estate in England would not be liable to bear that charge, which would primarily be a charge upon the Scotch estate. But here we are dealing with a testator's intention, as expressed in his will." And Lord Westbury says, in the same spirit, (a) "*Drummond v. Drummond* has nothing to do with this case. *Drummond v. Drummond* was nothing more than an illustration of the settled principle, that real estate is governed by the *lex loci*. The Scotch owner of the estate in that case took it, according to the law of Scotland, *cum onere*." The other point, with regard to the want of any obligation of the Scotch heir to make election, and bring his land into hotchpot in order to take under the will, was similarly decided with reference to the intention of the testator. An heir to foreign realty may take it unconditionally according to the law of the *situs*, and nevertheless share under an English will which was ineffectual to devise it, unless it appear distinctly from the terms of the will that the testator intended that he should not be allowed to do so. (b) In *Balfour v. Scott* (c) there was an intestacy, so that no

(a) At p. 519. See as to the exoneration by personality of real estate, *Mellish v. Valins*, 2 J. & H. 194; *Eno v. Tatham*, 3 De G. J. & S. 443; and 17 & 18 Vict. c. 113 (Looke King's Act).

(b) *Harrison v. Harrison*, L. R. 8 Ch. 342; *ante*, p. 197.

(c) 2 Vea. & B. 131, n.

such intention could be suggested, and the Scotch heir accordingly took the Scotch land according to Scotch law, and a share of the personalty, as next of kin, according to English law. So in *Johnson v. Telfourd*,^(a) it was held that an heir of Scotch real estate was not put to his election by *general expressions*, unless it was clearly to be collected from the words used that the testator meant to pass his Scotch estate to the uses of the will. "Where the testator uses only general words," said Sir John Leach, "it is to be intended that he means those general words to be applied to such property as would by its nature pass by his will, and to the uses therein expressed." And this doctrine was accepted in *Maxwell v. Maxwell*,^(b) where the will purported to devise to trustees all the testator's real and personal estate where-soever and whatsoever. It was invalid as to certain Scotch heritable bonds—real property by the Scotch law—and it was held that the Scotch heir was not bound to make election. Lord Cranworth said: "The designation of the subject intended to be affected by the instrument in general words imports *prima facie* that property only upon which the instrument is capable of operating." If the will had specifically devised the heritable bonds in question, the intention would of course have been manifest, and the Scotch heir could not have taken them in opposition to the will at the same time that he received a benefit under it. This was actually the ground of the decision in *Brodie v. Barry*,^(c) where the will expressly devised the testator's real estate in Scotland, although it was ineffectual to do so, and the Scotch heir was of course put to his election.

In cases of intestacy, it is apparent that these considerations of the intention of the deceased owner cannot arise, and the proper laws will therefore be left to operate upon immovable and movable property respectively. The

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

Succession to
Immovables.

Intention of
testator—
foreign heir
bound by.

(a) 1 Russ. & My. 254; and see *Allen v. Anderson*, 5 Hare, 163.

(b) 2 De G. M. & G. 705 (1852). This case is cited with approval by Malins, V.C., in *Maxwell v. Hyslop*, L. R. 4 Eq. 415.

(c) 2 Ves. & B. 131.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

Assignment of
immovables
on bankruptcy
—how far
extra-terri-
torial.

English
statutes.
Obligation to
convey foreign
land.

burdens of the former, as also its claims to exoneration, (a) will therefore be decided by the *lex situs*; the distribution of the latter, and the conditions under which those entitled may share in it (though they may also be the heirs of foreign immovables), by the *lex domicilii* of the intestate. (b) It is hardly necessary to say that when the foreign heir elects to take in opposition to a will purporting to deal with his inheritance, there is, *quoad* the foreign land, an intestacy, though the will remain by the law of the testator's domicile as to the movable personality. (c)

(vi.) *Assignment of Immovables by Bankruptcy*.—It is said by Wheaton that the question how far a bankruptcy declared under the laws of one country will affect the real and personal property of the bankrupt situate in another State, "is one of which the usage of nations, and the opinions of civilians, furnish no satisfactory solution. Even as between co-ordinate States belonging to the same common empire it has been doubted how far the assignment under the bankrupt laws of one country will operate a transfer of property in another. In respect to real property, which generally has some indelible characteristics impressed upon it by the local law, these difficulties are enhanced in those cases where the *lex loci rei sitæ* requires some formal act to be done by the bankrupt, or his attorney specially constituted, in the place where the property lies, in order to consummate the transfer." The difficulty, as it now presents itself to English Courts, is rather to construe properly the provisions of the statutes relating to bankruptcy in force for the time being, so as to understand what property they affect to convey to the trustee or assignee of the bankrupt. The old Bankruptcy Act of 1849 was limited in terms (s. 142) to real estate "in England, Scotland,

(a) *Elliott v. Minto*, 6 Madd. 16; *Drummond v. Drummond*, 2 Ves. & B. 131.

(b) *Balfour v. Scott*, 2 Ves. & B. 131; S. C. 6 Bro. P. C. 550, *ante*, p. 161.

(c) *Harrison v. Harrison*, L. R. 8 Ch. 342. As to succession to chattels real, see the note at the end of this chapter, p. 214.

or Ireland, or any of the dominions, plantations, or colonies belonging to her Majesty." The Act of 1869 contained no such express limitation, nor, on the other hand, anything expressly extending to foreign land. By the last Bankruptcy Act (1883) (46 & 47 Vict. c. 52) all such property as may belong to or be vested in the bankrupt passes to the trustee by s. 44; and by s. 168 property includes "money, goods, things in action, land, and every description of property, whether real or personal, *and whether situate in England or elsewhere.*" So far, therefore, as the control of the English Court can reach, and with reference to the rights and equities of persons before it, it will consider that foreign land belonging to the bankrupt is to be treated as passing to the trustee; and it would seem that, under the compulsory powers given by s. 24, the bankrupt may be ordered to execute a valid conveyance of foreign land to the trustee, according to the requirements of the *lex situs*. But it is clear that the Bankruptcy Act in itself cannot operate to pass the title to foreign land; and even with respect to colonial land, it only operates to pass such land according to the law of the colony.^(a) That is to say, the title will pass if, and not unless, the law of the colony in question recognises the effect of the English bankruptcy law as transferring the title to colonial land. This is of course a question quite distinct from the recognition in the colonies of the validity of a discharge granted under an imperial bankruptcy statute.^(b)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Immovables—
Bankruptcy.*

With regard to the suggested power under s. 24 of compelling a bankrupt to execute a conveyance of foreign land, it had been held under the Act of 1849 that a bankrupt under an English commission of bankruptcy could not be compelled to assign his foreign real estate to his assignees, though it was suggested that he might be indirectly obliged to do so by withholding his cer-

(a) *Ex parte Rogers, Re Boustead*, 16 Ch. D. 665.

(b) See *Ellis v. McHenry*, L. R. 6 C. P. 228, and *infra*, Chap. VIII.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Immovables—
Bankruptcy.*

tificate. The reasoning, however, of Lord Selborne in *Harrison v. Harrison*,^(a) already quoted on a different point, seems directly applicable. Unless there is a personal equity affecting the owner of real estate situate abroad, an English Court cannot claim to control such estate by acting on him, and it is quite clear that no English Court would recognise such a claim, as to English land, by the trustees or assignees under a foreign bankruptcy. In a later case,^(b) Parke, B., after saying that, generally speaking, real estate is governed by the *lex loci rei sitæ*, and not transferred by an assignment according to the law of the domicil of the owner, proceeded, "We have the authority of Lord Eldon in *Selkirk v. Davis*, in the analogous case of an English commission of bankruptcy, that a bankrupt cannot be compelled directly to assign his real estate to his assignees; and though there are indirect methods, as withholding their certificate, or by creditors assigning their debts to others in order to obtain execution against the real estates, neither of these are in the power of the assignees as such, *nor would the first of them seem to be in any case properly applied.*" It appears clear, however, that under the present Bankruptcy Act (1883) the express inclusion of land, "whether situate in England or elsewhere" (s. 168), coupled with the language of s. 44, does impose such a personal duty on the bankrupt. That section provides that the bankrupt "*shall execute such conveyances, deeds, and instruments, and generally do all such acts and things in relation to his property and the distribution of the proceeds amongst his creditors, as may be reasonably required or prescribed or directed.*" It has already been pointed out that by the joint operation of ss. 168, 44, foreign land is included in the definition of property "divisible amongst his creditors;" and it is therefore submitted that the personal equity or duty

(a) L. R. 8 Ch. 342; see p. 164, *suprà*.

(b) *Cockerell v. Dickens*, 3 Moo. P. C. 98, 133; see also *Ex parte Blakes*, 1 Cox, 398.

attaches on the bankrupt, and will be enforced in a proper case.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

*Immovables—
Bankruptcy.*

It may be noticed that under the Scotch Bankruptcy Act (19 & 20 Vict. s. 79) the bankrupt's real estate in England, Ireland, or other British dominions, vests in the Scotch trustee; but the larger definition of property contained in the English Act was not extended to Scotland by the Act 47 Vict. c. 16, which applied certain of the provisions of the English Bankruptcy Act, 1883, to the sister country. By the Irish Bankruptcy Act, 1857, however, all a bankrupt's estate, wherever situate, is vested in his assignees; a provision which is not repealed by the Irish Bankruptcy Act, 1872 (35 & 36 Vict. c. 58).

With regard to the effect attributed in England to a foreign bankruptcy, so far as land is concerned, it is clear that no foreign bankruptcy law will pass land in England to a trustee or assignee. It matters not for this purpose whether the bankruptcy be under the law of a purely foreign State, or of a colony or other dependency of the British Crown.^(a) The proper course in such a case is to take proceedings in the foreign court, where the bankruptcy is pending, to compel the bankrupt to transfer the English land to his trustee or assignee.^(b) So far as English, Scotch, Irish, and other "British" Courts are concerned, it is provided by s. 118 of the Act of 1883 that "they shall severally act in aid of and be auxiliary to each other; and an order of the Court seeking aid, with a request to another of the said Courts, shall be deemed sufficient to enable the latter Court to exercise, in regard to the matters directed by the order, such jurisdiction as either the Court which made the request or the Court to which the request is made, could exercise in regard to similar matters within their respective jurisdictions" (s. 118). Under this section an order has been made in England in aid of the Cape of Good Hope Court of

(a) *Re Levy's Trusts*, 30 Ch. D. 119, 123.

(b) *Waite v. Bingley*, 21 Ch. D. 674, 682.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

Immovables—
Bankruptcy.

Bankruptcy.(a) The jurisdiction, however, was not resisted; but it appears open to grave doubt whether a Cape of Good Hope Court is "British" within the meaning of this section. If so, it must be also British for the converse of the case then before the Court, which implies that Parliament intended, by the Act, 1883, to confer jurisdiction upon courts in colonies like the Cape of Good Hope to hear and grant applications in aid of English bankruptcies, and to direct the officers of such colonial courts to act in aid of English trustees and receivers. It is not probable that a Court of a colonial Legislature would consider itself bound by the English statute, if such a case was brought before it; and the more natural interpretation of s. 118 of the Bankruptcy Act, 1883, appears to be that it was intended for Scotch, Irish, and English Courts, and also for such other British Courts as are not under Legislatures of their own—*e.g.*, the local courts in the Isle of Man or the Channel Islands.

Rights in
immovables
acquired by
marriage.

(vii.) *Alienation of Immovable Property on Marriage.*—The nature of the rights acquired by the husband and wife respectively at marriage in the immovables of the other is decided absolutely, according to English law, by the *lex situs*. According to Story,(b) "it may be affirmed without hesitation, that independent of any contract, express or implied, no estate can be acquired by operation of law in any other manner, or to any other extent, or by any other means, than those prescribed by the *lex rei sitæ*. Thus no estate in dowry, or tenancy by the curtesy . . . can be acquired, except by such persons, and under such circumstances, as the local law prescribes." Westlake says that on this point there is no doubt but that in England the *lex situs* would prevail, as it does in America.(c) Against it has been set up by foreign jurists the claim of the law of the matrimonial domicile, on the ground, among others, that the presumed intention of the parties was that their mutual rights should be regulated by

(a) *In Re Firbank, Ex parte Knight*, 4 Morell, 50.

(b) *Conflict of Laws*, §§ 448, 454.

(c) *Priv. Int. Law*, § 95.

that law ; (a) though even those who maintain this view do not contend that the law of the matrimonial domicile can prevail as to any of these rights in direct opposition to any prohibition or restriction imposed by the *lex situs*. It has also been suggested that the law of the place where the marriage is celebrated is the proper one to govern the rights of husband and wife respectively in all the property, movable and immovable, of the other ; and Lord Meadowbank, in 1814, used language in a Scotch case which has been quoted in support of such a view. "When a lady of fortune having a great deal of money in Scotland, or Stock in the banks or public companies there, marries in London, the whole property is *ipso jure* her husband's. It is assigned to him. *The legal assignment of a marriage operates without regard to territory all the world over.*" (b) In *Selkraig v. Davis*, (c) however, Lord Eldon limited the doctrine here laid down to personal property, and it is beyond a doubt that as to realty, at any rate, it is unsound. The question as to the proper law to regulate the effect of marriage on the movable property of the husband and wife will be discussed subsequently.

PART II.
PROPERTY.
CAP. VI.
*Immovables—
Marriage.*

SUMMARY.

ALIENATION OF IMMOVABLE PROPERTY BY ACT OF LAW.

(v.) *Succession on Intestacy*.—The *lex situs* determines the heir ; and the English law, speaking as the *lex situs*, requires that he should be legitimate not only according to its own rules, but by the law of his domicile also. p. 60.
p. 202.

The burdens, liabilities, and claims, of immovable property in the hands of the heir, in the absence of any equity arising from trust or contract, depend upon the *lex situs*. p. 203.

But the conditions under which the heir of foreign land may share in the (movable) personalty of the intestate, pp. 204–206.

(a) Story, *Conflict of Laws*, § 449 ; Westlake, *Priv. Int. Law*, § 369.

(b) *Royal Bank of Scotland v. Outhbert*, 1 Rose, 481. (c) 2 Rose, 97.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

p. 207.

depend upon the law of the intestate's domicile, and not upon the *lex situs* of the foreign land.

These rules, in cases of intestacy, are invariable, because there can be no demonstration of the intention of the owner that the foreign land should either bear or be exonerated from any particular debts, as there may be when a testamentary disposition has been made.

pp. 208-211.

(vi.) *Transfer on Bankruptcy*.—Under an English bankruptcy, the English bankruptcy law regards as passing to the trustee all the movable and immovable property of the bankrupt, wherever situate. And though the English bankruptcy law cannot pass the title (unless in a case where the *lex situs* gave it that effect), yet the Bankruptcy Act, 1883, appears to impose a personal duty on the bankrupt to execute a proper conveyance of foreign land to his trustee, which duty the English Court has power to enforce.

pp. 211, 212.

In the case of a foreign bankruptcy, the English Courts will not regard the title to English land as passing to the trustee. The proper course is to apply to the foreign Court where the bankruptcy is pending, to direct the bankrupt to execute a conveyance according to English law.

p. 212.

(vii.) *Transfer on Marriage*.—The rights of husband and wife in and to the English immovables of either are decided by English law, as the *lex situs*. *Semble*, the *lex situs* has an equal claim to prevail when the situation of the immovables is foreign, whatever the matrimonial domicile.

NOTE TO CHAPTER VI.

ON LEGITIMACY FOR THE PURPOSES OF SUCCESSION TO
ENGLISH LEASEHOLDS.

It is settled, by the decisions in *Freke v. Carbery*,^(a) *Duncan v. Lawson*,^(b) and kindred cases, that leaseholds are *immovables*, and not *movables*, for the purposes of Private International Law, although they are personal estate by English Law.

(a) 16 Eq. 461; *ante*, p. 181.

(b) 41 Ch. D. 394; *ante*, p. 182.

The classification of property into *immovables* and *movables* is therefore not co-extensive with, and does not correspond to, the English classification into *real* and *personal*. The latter classification is peculiar to English law,^(a) and the maxim, "*mobilia sequuntur personam*," cannot be correctly applied to it. It is further established by *Duncan v. Lawson*, that English leaseholds being immovables, the succession to them is regulated by English law—i.e., by the English Statute of Distributions—whatever the domicile of the intestate. This obviously implies the general proposition of which it is only a special application, that the succession to immovables is regulated by the *lex rei sitæ*.

It is proposed to consider here whether or not, for the purpose of succession to this kind of immovables, English law requires that the next of kin, whom it designates as successors, should fulfil any other condition but that of legitimacy by the law of their domicile.

A simple illustration will present the difficulty in a concrete form. A., a domiciled Englishman, dies intestate, possessed of English freeholds, English leaseholds, and English goods. He has no kindred except a nephew, a brother's son, born before wedlock in Scotland of parents there domiciled, but legitimised, *per subsequens matrimonium*, according to the law of the domicile. Now it is beyond all question that this child is not the heir to the English freeholds, because, although legitimate in the eye of the English law (following the *lex domicilii*), yet it is also the English law that no one can succeed to English freeholds who was not born in wedlock.^(b) It is also established by the decision of the Court of Appeal in *Goodman's Trusts* ^(c) (overruling Jessel, M.R.), that this child is entitled to succeed to the goods or pure personalty in England; because English law in general, and the Statute of Distributions in particular, adopts the law of the domicile of the person in question in deciding as to his legitimacy. The remaining question is, Whether or not the child can succeed to the leaseholds? To this question no satisfactory answer has yet been given.

(a) Jarman on Wills, vol. i. p. 4, n.

(b) It will be seen by reference to the judgment of James, L.J., in *Goodman's Trusts*, 17 Ch. D. at p. 298, that this is the effect of the decision in *Birtchistle v. Vardill*.

(c) 17 Ch. D. 266.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

The argument in support of the proposition that such child is excluded from the leaseholds may be presented in the following form—almost, in appearance, a perfect syllogism:—

(A.) No one can succeed to English immovables who was not born in wedlock.(a)

(B.) English leaseholds are English immovables.(b)

Therefore a child not born in lawful wedlock cannot succeed to English leaseholds.

Of these two propositions, B. is of comparatively recent date, but in principle it appears impregnable. In *Freke v. Carbery* (c) it was held that the Thellusson Act applied to English leaseholds of a testator domiciled in Ireland, although that Act is not operative there. "Land," said Lord Selborne, "whether held for a chattel interest or held for a freehold interest, is in nature, as a matter of fact, immovable and not movable. The doctrine" (*mobilia sequuntur personam*) "is inapplicable to it." It is obvious that the *lex rei sitæ*, must be the law to decide what is immovable and what is movable, inasmuch as it has the exclusive power of enforcing its view, and there is a consensus of opinion to this effect.(d)

Independently of the decision in *Freke v. Carbery*, there was no want of *dicta* going further than this, and asserting the right of the *lex rei sitæ* to regulate the succession to leaseholds on this very ground. In Jarman on Wills (e) it is said, "leaseholds for years, though they are with us transmissible as personal estate, are governed by the *lex loci*, and do not follow the person; so that if an Englishman domiciled abroad dies possessed of such property, it will devolve according to the English law."(f) Westlake (§ 147) says, "Interests in land which are limited in duration, whether for terms of years for life, or

(a) *Birtwhistle v. Vardill*.

(b) *Duncan v. Lawson*.

(c) 16 Eq. 461.

(d) Story, Conflict of Laws, 2nd ed. § 447; Westlake, § 146; *Buccleuch v. Hoare*, 4 Madd. 467; *Harrison v. Harrison*, 8 Ch. App. 342, 346.

(e) 3rd ed. vol. i. p. 4, n. (u).

(f) It is true that this conclusion is questioned by the editors of Jarman, who cite some *dicta* in support of the other view: Jarman, Byth. Conv. vol. xi. p. 15 (3rd ed.); Deane on Wills, p. 15; *Price v. Dewhurst*, 4 My. & Cr. 81; *Jerningham v. Herbert*, 4 Russ. 388; *Pearmain v. Twiss*, 2 Giff. 136. It is, however, submitted that these authorities, though some of them say that it is for the English law, when the *lex rei sitæ*, to distinguish between real and personal property, are none of them inconsistent with the principle that it is also its function to distinguish between movables and immovables. They were all cited in the argument in *Freke v. Carbery*.

otherwise; interests in land which are limited in their nature, . . . servitudes, charges, liens, and all other dismemberments of the property in land, are immovables as well as the land itself." Upon this state of the authorities, it was very recently decided by Mr. Justice Kay, in *Duncan v. Lawson*,^(a) that the *lex loci* governed the devolution of all *immobilia*, including leaseholds as well as the real estate in the English sense of the term; and therefore that the English Statute of Distributions was the law which must designate the persons entitled to succeed to English leaseholds left by an intestate domiciled in Scotland. The same principle has been adopted by the Irish Courts in *In the Goods of Gentili*^(b) and *De Fogassieras v. Dupont*.^(c) The general rule, therefore, that leaseholds are immovables, for all purposes, including succession under a will or on intestacy, appears firmly established.

It remains to consider the other premiss or proposition of the syllogistic argument stated above—viz., that no one can succeed to English immovables who was not born in wedlock. Is this, without qualification or exception, the English law? It depends, if it is, upon the authority of *Birtwhistle v. Vardill*,^(d) and upon that alone; but it must be remembered that the decision in question was a judgment of the House of Lords, after taking the opinion of the judges; and a reference to the words of James, L.J., in *Goodman's Trusts* ^(e) will show that no attempt to shake the authority of that judgment is likely to succeed. Whatever that case decided is law, and will be law unless altered by Act of Parliament.

Now the actual decision in *Birtwhistle v. Vardill* was, that the eldest son born in Scotland before marriage of parents domiciled there, though by Scotch law legitimate *per subsequens matrimonium*, was not capable of taking land in England as heir of his father. "In that judgment," says James, L.J.,^(f) "there are two distinct propositions clearly and distinctly enunciated. The first was, that the claimant was for all purposes and to all intents legitimate."^(g) The second was,

(a) 41 Ch. D. 394.

(c) L. R. Ir. 123.

(e) 17 Ch. D. at p. 299.

(f) *Goodman's Trusts*, 17 Ch. D. at p. 298.

(b) Ir. Rep. 9 Eq. 541.

(d) 7 Cl. & F. 895.

(g) This acceptance of the general principle, that the legitimacy of every man depends upon the law of the domicile, was regarded by Lord Cranworth in *Shaw v. Gould*, L. R. 3 H. L. p. 70, as rather in the nature of an *obiter*

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

that such legitimacy did not necessarily, and did not in fact in that case, include heirship to English land. . . . What the assembled judges said in *Doe v. Vardill*, and what the Lords held was, that the case of heirship to English land was a peculiar exception to the rights incident to that character and *status* of legitimacy, which was admitted by both judges and Lords to be the true character and *status* of the claimant. It was only an additional instance of the many anomalies which at that time affected the descent of land. . . . The English heirship, the descent of English land, required not only that the man should be legitimate, but as it were *porphyrogenitus*, born legitimate within the narrowest pale of English legitimacy. Heirship is an incident of land, depending on local law, the law of the country, the county, the manor, and even of the particular property itself, the *forma doni*."

The language in which James, L.J., thus summarises the effect of *Birtwhistle v. Vardill* has been set out, because there can be no doubt that at first sight it does appear to be almost coincident with the proposition, that no one can succeed to English immovables who was not born in wedlock, so fulfilling the condition which was unfulfilled in that case.(a)

It has already been shown that leaseholds are immovable, and that "immovables" is only a phrase which expresses legal interests in land. And if the doctrine of *Birtwhistle v. Vardill* applies to all English immovables—i.e., to all interests in English land—then it seems impossible to escape from the conclusion of the syllogistic argument which was formulated

dictum in *Vardill's Case*. Though established in Scotch cases, there was a want of express English authority upon it until *Goodman's Trusts* was decided, the judgments in which virtually overrule *Boyes v. Bedale*, 1 H. & M. 798, a decision of Wood, V.C., certainly inconsistent with the general principle referred to.

(a) Although Lush, L.J., dissented from the rest of the Court in the case of *Goodman's Trusts*, from which the above language of James, L.J., is taken, yet it must be remembered that his dissent was on the ground that he wished to narrow, not the operation of the *lex rei sitæ*, but the operation of the *lex domicilii*. The refusal of Lush, L.J., to recognise that the legitimacy of a successor to movables must be decided by the law of his domicile seems to have been based to a considerable extent upon the judgment of Wood, V.C., in *Boyes v. Bedale*, 1 H. & M. 798. Of that case the other members of the Court expressed strong disapproval, and it has recently been departed from by Kay, J., in *Andros v. Andros*, 24 Ch. D. 637. It is submitted that a return to the narrower doctrine of *Boyes v. Bedale* would be a retrograde step, which is an improbable one. See the larger and more generous language of James, L.J., in 17 Ch. D. pp. 297, 298.

above. The harshness of the proposition, that the Scotch (legitimised) nephew whose case is being considered could take the pure personalty, but not the English leaseholds, of his intestate uncle is very apparent; and Mr. Dicey, in a note on the subject,^(a) draws attention to the point as still capable of discussion.

Shortly stated, it is submitted that the answer—if it be an answer—to the argument which has been presented above against the right of the imaginary Scotch nephew to the English leaseholds, is that *Birtwhistle v. Vardill* does not apply to all English immovables, but only to *hereditaments*. If so, the Scotch claimant need only be legitimate by the law of his domicile, and the further condition that he should have been also born in wedlock, which was required in *Birtwhistle v. Vardill*, has no application.

The question to be answered, therefore, is, whether the decision of the House of Lords in *Birtwhistle v. Vardill* applies to all immovables, or only to hereditaments. Upon this the first obvious remark is, that inasmuch as the claim in that case was to succeed *as heir* to English land, the actual decision was with respect to hereditaments; and if larger language than was necessary for this decision was used, so much of it as had a wider application was necessarily *obiter dictum*. The language in which James, L.J., summarises this judgment has already been quoted,^(b) but repetition may be excused here. "What the Lords held was that the case of *heirship* to English land was a peculiar exception to the rights incident to the character and *status* of legitimacy. . . . It was only an additional instance of the many anomalies which at that time affected the *descent* of land. . . . But in this particular case the exception is at all events plausible. The *English heirship*, the *descent of English land*, required not only that the man should be legitimate, but as it were *porphyro-genitus*, born within the narrowest pale of English legitimacy. *Heirship* is an incident of land, depending on local law, the law of the country, the county, the manor, and even of the particular property itself, the *forma doni*. *Kinship* is an incident of the person, and universal."

(a) *Law Quarterly Review*, Oct. 1889, p. 443.

(b) *Goodman's Trusts*, 17 Ch. D. 298.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VI.

The words which have been italicised in the above quotation show clearly, it is submitted, that James, L.J., at any rate, would not have regarded the decision in *Vardill's Case* as applicable to any interests in land other than hereditaments. It is true that Lush, L.J., the dissenting member of the Court, uses the looser expression "for the purpose of succession to real estate," (a) but there is not a word in his judgment to show that that learned Judge meant "real estate" to include chattels real, or used the word "succession" in any larger sense than that of heirship. Turning from the modern interpreters of *Birtwhistle v. Vardill* to the case itself, upon what is the whole argument against the claimant based? It will be found that it rests upon the Statute of Merton. (b) That enactment arose from a proposition by the clergy at the Parliament of Merton to recognise legitimisation *per subsequens matrimonium*, in accordance with the doctrine of the Church. "*Rogaverunt omnes Episcopi magnates, ut consentirent, quod nati ante matrimonium essent legitimi, sicut illi qui nati sunt post matrimonium, quantum ad successionem hereditariam, quia ecclesia tales habet pro legitimis. Et omnes Comites et Barones una voce responderunt, quod nolunt leges Angliæ mutare, quæ usitatz sunt ac approbatæ.*" It would be difficult to find words which more precisely limited the doctrine to hereditaments, than those employed in the Statute itself—"quantum ad successionem hereditariam." It has been said that this statute was only declaratory of the Common Law. That, of course, appears from the language used; but it only declares the law "*quantum ad successionem hereditariam,*" and if the same law exists with respect to succession to chattels real, it must be sought for elsewhere than in the Statute of Merton. Reference to the other authorities cited in *Vardill's Case* to support the doctrine of the Statute of Merton lend little assistance. Ducange (*sub voc. Legitimatio*) certainly uses the larger expression, "*quoad successionem in bona paterna,*" but quotes for this chiefly ("*præsertim*") the Statute of Merton itself. Bracton (c) is also cited, where, speaking of *nati ante matrimonium*, he says, "*ad omnes actus legitimos idonei reputantur ad ea vero quæ pertinent ad regnum, non sunt legitimi,*

(a) 17 Ch. D. at p. 284.
(c) Lib. ii. c. 29, s. 4.

(b) 20 Hen. III. c. 9.

nec hæredes judicantur, quod parentibus succedere possunt, propter consuetudinem regni, quæ se habet in contrarium." It may be suspected that, "*quod parentibus*" is an error for "*qui parentibus*;" (a) but, however this may be, the whole passage is plainly confined to "*hæredes*," and is a singular parallel to the language of James, L.J., already cited from *Goodman's Trusts*. The titles of the sections of the chapter in Bracton, from which the quotation is taken, further indicate that the whole is a mere expansion of the phrase, "*hæres et filius est quem nuptiæ demonstrant.*" (b) Fortescue, (c) after pointing out that both by the civil law and the law of the Church, *ante-nati* are legitimate, says, merely, "The Law of England does not admit children born before matrimony to take *by heirship*." Fleta, (d) has already been referred to as virtually identical with Bracton, but it is worth noticing that in another passage the same author uses larger language "*(Ante nati) quoad successionem in bona paterna secundum consuetudinem Angliæ illegitimi et bastardi.*" (e) It will be seen, however, that in the very same chapter the author declares the law of the Church to be otherwise, and it is difficult to reconcile the context with the idea that *bona paterna* included chattels.

The older authorities have been briefly reviewed, because most of them were cited in support of the Statute of Merton in the case of *Birtwhistle v. Vardill*; but since the decision of the Court of Appeal in *Goodman's Trusts*, (f) it would, of course, be idle to rely on the words of Fleta or Ducange in order to show that *ante-nati* cannot inherit pure personality. The judgment of Lush, L.J. (*dissent.*), in *Goodman's Trusts* contains all that can be said in support of such a doctrine, but it was finally rejected by the Court; and it is now submitted that there are no authorities left from which a similar disability can be deduced with respect to chattels real. So far as the attempt to examine the grounds of *Birtwhistle v. Vardill* has been successful, that decision would seem to be confined, as the Statute of Merton beyond doubt was, to estates of

(a) The version of the same words in Fleta (i. 15, 3) is "*nec parentibus succedere poterunt ut hæredes.*" It is true that "*qui parentibus*," &c., would, strictly speaking, require "*possint*" for "*possunt*," but this is perhaps expecting too much of Bracton.

(b) Bracton, ii. 29, s. 3.

(d) Lib. i. 15, 3.

(f) 17 Ch. D. 298.

(c) De Land. Leg. Angl. cap. 39.

(e) Fleta, lib. vi. 39, 4.

PART II. inheritance in land. The conclusion which the author finally
PROPERTY. submits is, that there is nothing to prevent the application of
CAP. VI. the principle of *Goodman's Trusts* to English leaseholds, or to
require anything more of the next-of-kin for the purposes of
such succession than that he should be legitimate by the *lex*
domicilii, in the sense elsewhere discussed.(a)

(a) *In re Grove*, 40 Ch. D. 216.

CHAPTER VII.

MOVABLE PERSONAL PROPERTY.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

(i.) *Jurisdiction as to Movable Personal Property.*

It has been already noticed, while treating of the principle that it is the *lex situs* which must decide what does and what does not fall within the category of real or immovable estate, (a) that the English classification of all property into *real* and *personal* does not correspond exactly with that adopted by foreign jurists and systems of jurisprudence which are founded on the civil law, and that an ambiguity is consequently involved in the use of the words *personal* and *movable* as synonymous. The comparatively modern nature of chattel interests in land, which were unknown to the feudal system, and could not conveniently be subjected to its rules, caused them to be classed with the only other kind of property then recognised by the law, *goods and chattels*; being given the distinguishing name of *chattels real*, inasmuch as they were said to "savour of the realty." (b) But though such chattel interests are still, strictly speaking, personal property, they are so merely in name, and only in the contemplation of the English law; and are governed, like other immovables, by the *lex loci rei sitæ* only. (c) It will be shown directly that personal estate generally is governed by the law of the domicile of the owner; but this is so, not by any special law of England, but—as Lord Selborne expresses it in the case just cited—by the

Movables
and personal
property dis-
tinguished.

(a) *Suprà*, pp. 179–182.(b) Williams, *Personal Property*, p. 2.(c) Jarman on Wills, vol. i. p. 4, n.; *Freke v. Lord Carbery*, L. R. 16 Eq. 461.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Jurisdiction.*

deference which, for the sake of international comity, the law of England pays to the law of the civilised world generally. But this general law only applies the law of the domicile to such personal estate as comes within its category of movables, according to the maxim "*mobilia sequuntur personam*," on which it is based. Consequently the comity of nations does not demand that England should concede the control of English chattels real to the law of the domicile of the owner, simply because English law chooses to include such chattels under the classification of personal property, and it must be borne in mind throughout that in fact such a concession is not made.(a) As the term "movables" is not one familiar to English law, it has been thought better to retain the English classification of real and personal property while treating of this subject; but what is subsequently said as to the law which governs personal property does not extend to chattel interests in realty, and must be considered as applicable to *chattels personal* alone.

*Mobilia
sequuntur
personam.*

With regard, then, to all personal property other than chattels real, a rule very different to that which obtains with regard to "immovables" prevails. In the words of Lord Selborne,(b) "The maxim of the law of the civilised world is, *mobilia sequuntur personam*, and is founded on the nature of things. When *mobilia* are in places other than that of the person to whom they belong, their accidental *situs* is disregarded, and they are held to go along with the person." The same principles were laid down by Lord Loughborough in a judgment cited with approbation by Story.(c) "It is a clear proposition, not only of the law of England, but of every country in the world where law has the semblance of science, that personal property has no locality. The meaning of that is, not that personal

(a) *Freke v. Lord Carbery*, L. R. 16 Eq. 461; *Thomson v. Advocate-General*, 12 Cl. & F. 1; *Wallace v. Attorney-General*, L. R. 1 Ch. 1; Jarman on Wills, vol. i. p. 4, n. The authorities cited by the later editors of Jarman in support of the opposite view must now be regarded as overruled: Story, Conflict of Laws, § 447.

(b) *Freke v. Lord Carbery*, L. R. 16 Eq. 466.

(c) Story, Conflict of Laws, § 380.

property has no visible locality, but that it is subject to that law which governs the person of the owner." With respect to the disposition of it, with respect to the transmission of it, either by succession or the act of the party, it follows the law of the person.(a) This personal law is, of course, that of the domicile of the person.(b) It is true that Lord Loughborough, in the judgment just quoted from, goes on to say that when a man dies it is the law of the country of which he was a subject that will regulate the succession to his personal property; but it is obvious that this was a mere inaccuracy of expression, and the case Lord Loughborough himself cites in support of his proposition (c) shows that domicile, and not nationality, was really in his lordship's mind. In a case which has been already frequently cited for another important proposition, Abbott, C.J., said: "Personal property has no locality. And even with respect to that, it is not correct to say that the law of England gives way to the law of a foreign country, but that it is part of the law of England that personal property should be distributed according to the *jus domicilii*."(d) It was said by Bayley, B., in another case, "The rule is that personal property follows the person, and is not in any respect to be regulated by the *lex situs*; and if in any instances the *situs* has been adopted for the rule by which the property is to be governed, and the *lex loci rei sitæ* resorted to, it has been improperly done. Wherever the domicile of the proprietor is, there the property is to be considered as situate."(e) It is unnecessary to multiply quotations in support of the general principle, which, according to Story, has been constantly maintained, both in England and America, with unbroken confidence and general unanimity.(f)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Jurisdiction.

(a) *Sill v. Worswick*, 1 H. Bl. 690.

(b) *Dogliani v. Crispin*, L. R. 1 H. L. 301; *Enohin v. Wylie*, 10 H. L. C. 1.

(c) *Pipon v. Pipon*, Ambl. 25.

(d) *Birtwhistle v. Vardill*, 5 B. & C. 451.

(e) *In re Ewin*, 1 C. & J. 156.

(f) See, in addition to the cases already cited, *Potter v. Brown*, 5 East, 130; *Bruce v. Bruce*, 2 B. & P. 229; *Somerville v. Somerville*, 5 Ves. 570;

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Jurisdiction.Qualification
of *mobilia
sequuntur
personam*.

But this general principle, important as it is in theory, must not be accepted hastily as conclusive of the whole subject. It will be shown below (a) that alienations of personal property *inter vivos* are in practice referred to and governed by the law of the place where the chattel is *in fact*, at any rate when the transaction or transfer takes place within the same jurisdiction. For this purpose it is not true to say that the chattel is considered as being in the country where its proprietor is domiciled; and the cases which have just been cited must therefore be read *secundum subjectam materiam*, without attempting to stretch their principle too far. The reason that the *lex domicilii* is not applicable, or at any rate is not applied, to alienations *inter vivos* is perhaps twofold. In the first place, the effect of an alienation is to alter the ownership; and to invoke the law of the owner's domicil to decide who the owner is would be both illogical and impracticable. Where the domicil of the transferee differed from that of the transferor, the whole question would be begged by applying the law of the domicil of one rather than the other. The second obvious reason which supports the *lex domicilii* in such cases is the complement of the first. The proper law to decide who is entitled to possession of a chattel is necessarily the law which can give that possession. The only law which can give possession of a chattel is the law of the country where the chattel in fact is.

It is for these natural reasons that questions of ownership to movables arising out of alienations *inter vivos* are referred, as will be seen below, (b) not to the *lex domicilii*, but to the *lex loci rei sitæ*, either by itself or as coincident with the *lex loci actus*. That the same principle should not be applied to alienation of movables by operation of law, or what are sometimes spoken of as "general assignments" as contrasted with "particular assignments,"

Thorn v. Watkins, 2 Ves. 37; *Countess D'Acunha's Case*, 1 Hag. Eccl. 237; *Hunter v. Potts*, 4 T. R. 182, 192; *Phillips v. Hunter*, 2 H. Bl. 402; *Cockerell v. Dickens*, 3 Moo. P. C. 98.

(a) See *infra*, "Alienation of Personal Property."

(b) *Infra*, p. 236, *sq.*

may at first sight appear inconsistent. But it is manifest that there is a real distinction between the application of the personal law of the owner to decide the general destination and distribution of his movables, and the application of the local law, where movables are found, to decide in particular cases who the owner is. In accordance with this distinction, it will be found, on examination of the cases,^(a) that the transmission of movables on death, bankruptcy, and marriage, or arising from matters which affect the personal *status* of the owner, is regarded as properly falling within the province of his personal law, or *lex domicilii*. On the other hand, particular alienations *inter vivos* have never been referred to the *lex domicilii*, but are governed (as has just been stated) by the *lex rei sitæ*, and the *lex loci actus*, alone or in combination.^(b)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Jurisdiction.*

Rule as to
transmission
and alienation
of movables.

The question of *jurisdiction* can only be understood in relation to the above principles. In fact, the law of the place where a thing is must, of necessity, have jurisdiction over it in every case, because no other law can enforce the right to its possession. In this sense, therefore, the *lex loci rei sitæ* has universally jurisdiction over movables, as well as immovables. But in cases which properly fall under the control of the *lex domicilii*, or personal law, the local law will adopt and apply the principles of that personal law; and the personal law, though the movables in dispute may be beyond its territorial dominion, will assume the right to hear and decide questions relating to their transmission and distribution. In this sense, therefore, the *lex domicilii* has jurisdiction over movables, so far as they follow the person of their owner.^(c)

It remains to consider in what manner these conflicting English practice.

(a) P. 266, sq.

(b) Pp. 236-251.

(c) In many instances it will be found that questions of the alienation of movables are questions of contract. In such cases the *lex contractus* is introduced, and the *lex loci rei sitæ*, when appealed to, will rightly and properly apply that law, so far as it can be ascertained, having due regard to the intention of the parties (*cf. infra*, Chap. VIII.). But it would be a misuse of language to say that the *lex contractus* has jurisdiction over the movables affected by the contract.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Service out of
the jurisdiction
of writ
affecting mov-
ables.

theoretical jurisdictions are in fact reconciled by the practice of English law. The most efficient mode of asserting jurisdiction over movables, as distinguished from jurisdiction over the person of the owner, is by allowing service out of the territorial jurisdiction of a writ (or notice of a writ) whose subject-matter is movable goods within the territorial jurisdiction. So far as the theory of international law is concerned, there does not appear any reason why this should not be done; and in the (Judicature Acts) Rules, as originally drawn, it was provided that service out of the jurisdiction might be allowed (*inter alia*) "whenever the subject-matter of the action is land, stock, or other property situate within the jurisdiction,"(a) and also "whenever the action is for . . . the execution (as to property situate within the jurisdiction) of the trusts of any written instrument of which the person to be served is a trustee, which ought to be executed according to the law of England."(b) In practice, however, the process of English law is *in personam* and not *in rem*, and the ordinary rule that a creditor must go to the *forum* of his debtor in order to sue him was found to be in conflict with the application of the first part of the above rule. Accordingly, the rule was amended in 1883; and Order XI. r. 1 (a) in its present form is confined to cases in which the subject-matter of the action is *land* within the jurisdiction. It is obvious that whenever movables are found within the jurisdiction, they must be in the possession of some person; and there can, therefore, be seldom any difficulty as to finding a suitable defendant at home, without seeking one abroad. The English Courts will therefore no longer give leave to serve a writ abroad merely on the ground that it relates to movable property at home. Nor will they permit the service abroad of any notice on which it is intended to found proceedings against the person,(c) unless

(a) Jud. Act, Order XI. r. 1 (a) (before their alteration).

(b) Order XI. r. 1 (d). The whole order is now a code on the subject of service out of the jurisdiction: *Re Eager*, 22 Ch. D. 87; see the order set out *infra*, Chap. X.

(c) *In re Anglo-African Steamship Co.*, 32 Ch. D. 348; *Moritz v. Stephan*, 32 Sol. Journ. 8. Cf. *Smith v. Weguelin*, 8 Eq. 198.

otherwise justiciable to the Court. But notices have been served, with the permission of the Court, when their only object is to give notice of facts, and not to lay the foundation for hostile proceedings.(a) So, when the object of the notice is to invite and enable the person served to assert a claim to movables within the jurisdiction, service has been allowed even as against a foreign Sovereign.(b)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Jurisdiction.

The jurisdiction in respect of movables within the territory, however, clearly exists; and may be exemplified, not only by the retention of Order XI. r. 1 (d), above cited, but by other illustrations. The whole procedure of the Court in Admiralty matters, *in rem*, to enforce maritime liens (statutory or common law) is a strong assertion of such jurisdiction. The law of distress is a still more familiar instance. No one could doubt that the goods of a foreigner, though he be abroad, are subject while in England to the English landlord and tenant law. Cases in which the Court (except in Admiralty matters) has assumed to control movables simply on the ground of their being within the territory are comparatively unusual; but an injunction was granted against the removal of a ship which had been sold in Hamburg by a foreigner to an Englishman, and afterwards brought into an English port.(c) So in another case, where £20,000 in bonds was deposited in the Bank of England in trust for a foreign Government, on such terms that the foreign Government could by its ambassador have withdrawn the deposit but for the intervention of the Court, the Bank was restrained from parting with the deposit until the rights of the parties under contract had been ascertained.(d) In cases of interpleader, orders for service out of the jurisdiction of an interpleader summons

(a) *Re Nathan, Neoman & Co.*, 35 Ch. D. 1; *Credits Gerundese v. Van Weyde*, 2 Q. B. D. 171; *Re Haney's Trusts*, 10 Ch. 275; *Re Bonelli*, 18 Eq. 655; *Colls v. Robins*, 55 L. T. Rep. N. S. 479.

(b) See per Jessel, M.R., and James, L.J., in *Stronsberg v. Costa Rica*, 29 W. R. 125.

(c) *Hart v. Herwig*, 8 Ch. 860. In this case a bill for specific performance was also entertained, and substituted service directed on the master; but *quære* if this would now be done.

(d) *Gladstone v. Musurus Bey*, 1 H. & M. 495; see this case discussed in *Smith v. Weguelin*, 8 Eq. 214, 215.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Jurisdiction.*Interpleader
orders—
service abroad.

have more than once been made.^(a) Of these decisions Cotton, L.J., says they may “perhaps be supported on the ground that the object of service was not to give jurisdiction over the party served, but only to give him notice of a proceeding affecting his rights, that he might if he pleased come in and defend them.”^(b) But it is plain that notice of interpleader proceedings asserts an absolute right in the tribunal which gives it to deal as it chooses with the movable personalty to which the interpleader summons relates. Interpleader proceedings with respect to movables out of the jurisdiction would obviously be impossible unless the person who had actual control and possession of the movables in dispute came in and submitted to the English jurisdiction. It is an indispensable condition of relief by interpleader proceedings that the person who is threatened or vexed with a double claim should be willing “to pay or transfer the subject-matter into court, or to dispose of it as the Court or a judge may direct.”^(c) And leave has been given to serve petitions abroad to obtain payment out of court, a somewhat analogous case of dealing with movables on the ground of their actual situation.^(d) Except, however, for the purpose of dealing with property within the jurisdiction, a suit between foreigners will not be entertained, even if service is effected and appearance entered without objection.^(e)

Leave has been granted to serve notice of a writ abroad where an injunction was sought affecting funds in England, under Order XI. r. 1 (f). It was, however, held on appeal that, as a matter of discretion, such leave should not be given unless there is a *probable* cause of action, though the claim may be within the words of the rule.^(f) Where the

(a) *Credits Gerundense v. Van Weyde*, 12 Q. B. D. 171; *Van der Kan v. Ashworth*, W. N. 1884, 58.

(b) Per Cotton, L.J., in *In re Busfield*, 32 Ch. D. 123, 132.

(c) Judicature Rules, 1883, Order LVII. r. 2 (c).

(d) *Colls v. Robins*, 55 L. T. Rep. N.S. 479; *Re Turner*, 32 Sol. Journ. 324.

(e) *Matthæi v. Galitzin*, L. R. 18 Eq. 347. It should be noted, however, that the decision in this case related to the profits arising from foreign land, and that no question as to movables arose.

(f) *Société Générale de Paris v. Dreyfus*, 37 Ch. D. 215. Cf. *Call v. Oppenheim*, 1 Times Law Rep. 622.

sole respondent to a petition for the revocation of a patent was a domiciled Scotchman resident in Scotland, though there could be no service of the petition abroad, yet the Court ordered the petition to be set down for trial unless the respondent should come in and show cause to the contrary, being satisfied that he had in fact ample notice.^(a)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Jurisdiction.

Taxation—
liability to
income tax.

The liability of movable personal estate to taxation is not, strictly speaking, within the scope of the present treatise; but it may be convenient to summarise here the English law as to the application of the income tax to foreigners in respect of their annual gains or profits, as well as to Englishmen making profits abroad. Under schedule D. of 16 & 17 Vict. c. 34, s. 1, income tax is chargeable "for and in respect of the annual profits or gains arising or accruing to any person residing in the United Kingdom from any kind of property whatever, whether situate in the United Kingdom or elsewhere; and for and in respect of the annual profits or gains arising or accruing (b) to any person residing in the United Kingdom from any profession, trade, employment, or vocation, whether the same shall be respectively carried on in the United Kingdom or elsewhere. . . . And for and in respect of the annual profits or gains arising or accruing to any person whatever, whether a subject of her Majesty or not, although not resident within the United Kingdom, from any property whatever in the United Kingdom, or any profession, trade, employment, or vocation exercised within the United Kingdom." Under these words income tax is charged on—

(a) Persons residing within the United Kingdom, on property wherever situate and business wherever carried on (so far as profits received here are concerned);

(b) Persons not residing within the United Kingdom, on property situate or business carried on within the United Kingdom.

The distinction drawn by the language of this statute

Residence—
what it is.

(a) *Re Drummond*, 43 Ch. D. 80.

(b) But this does not extend to profits and gains arising from a business abroad which are not in fact remitted to or received by the owner resident in England: *Colquhoun v. Brooks*, 14 App. Cas. 493.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Jurisdiction.*Temporary
presence in
England.

between persons "residing" within the United Kingdom and those residing elsewhere has nothing to do with domicil.(a) Nor, in one sense, is the time of the alleged residence (*i.e.*, its duration) material (see case last cited); but by 5 & 6 Vict. c. 34, s. 39 (re-enacting 46 Geo. III. c. 65, s. 51), it is provided that "no person who shall . . . actually be in Great Britain for some temporary purpose only, and not with any view of establishing his residence therein, and who shall not actually have resided in Great Britain at one time or several times for a period equal in the whole to six months in any one year, shall be charged with the said duties as a person residing in Great Britain, in respect of the profits or gains received from or out of other than English possessions."(b) In the case of firms and companies, residence in Great Britain is often a complex question of fact.(c)

Interest or
dividends from
foreign com-
panies.

With respect to interest or dividends from foreign States or companies received in the United Kingdom for distribution here, it is provided by 5 & 6 Vict. c. 80, s. 2 (as to foreign States), and by 16 & 17 Vict. c. 34, s. 10 (as to foreign companies), that all persons entrusted with their distribution shall render an account thereof to the Inland Revenue, for the purposes of taxation. It is assumed for this purpose that all dividends so distributed in England are distributed amongst persons resident in England, in the sense already explained. But of course a person resident abroad may, as a matter of convenience, receive his dividends through London agents or trustees, in which case he will not be liable to taxation in respect of moneys so received.(d) And where the dividends of a foreign company so received in England consisted in part of moneys arising from profits or gains made in England, on

(a) *Att.-Gen. v. Coote*, 4 Price, 183; *Lloyd v. Inland Revenue*, 21 Sc. L. R. 482; *Young v. Same*, 12 Sc. L. R. 602; *Rogers v. Same*, 16 Sc. L. R. 682.

(b) See the provisions of the same section as to temporary absence from England. As to the meaning of "foreign possessions" in this section, see per Lord Herschell in *Colquhoun v. Brooks*, 14 App. Cas. at p. 508.

(c) See, for examples, *Cesena Sulphur Co. v. Nicholson*, 1 Ex. D. 428, and *Imperial Continental Gas Co. v. Same*, 37 L. T. Rep. 717.

(d) *Udney v. East India Co.*, 13 C. B. 733.

which income tax had been already charged as such, it was held that such dividends ought to be assessed with respect to that portion only which represented profits arising out of the United Kingdom.(a) Otherwise, income tax would be paid on the other portion twice over.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Jurisdiction.

Profits arising
in England.

It is not always easy to decide whether any and what profits arise from a trade or business exercised within the United Kingdom. Thus, where a firm established at New York had a branch establishment here for purchases of goods for exportation to America, where they were sold, and where all the profits were made, it was held that there was no business in England liable to income tax.(b) There certainly appears some difficulty in reconciling the decision last cited with the language of Lord Esher, M.R., in *Erichsen v. Last* (*infra*). "Wherever profitable contracts are habitually made in England by or for foreigners with persons in England, to do something for or supply something to those persons, such foreigners are exercising a profitable trade in England, even though everything to be done by them in order to fulfil the contracts is done abroad." But where a foreign firm of wine-merchants, whose chief office was in France, and none of whom were resident in England, had established an agent in London through whom wine was sold to, and payment received from, English customers, it was held that the foreign merchants were assessable in respect of the profits of a trade exercised in England.(c) The same was held with respect to the Great Northern Telegraph Co. of Copenhagen, who had three marine cables in connection with Aberdeen, and Newcastle, communicating with the main telegraph lines of the United Kingdom, by means of which messages were collected and transmitted by the company

(a) *Gilbertson v. Fergusson*, 7 Q. B. D. 562. That is, if P = total profits of company, p = profits made in England, and D = dividend distributed in England, then the assessment ought not to be on the whole of D, but upon $\frac{P-p}{P}$ D, or D - $\frac{p}{P}$ D.

(b) *Sulley v. Attorney-General*, 5 H. & N. 711; 29 L. J. Ex. 464.

(c) *Ponnamery v. Aphorpe*, 56 L. J. Q. B. 155; *Tischler v. Aphorpe*, 1 Times Law Rep. 337.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Jurisdiction.

over the Eastern hemisphere. The English Post Office collected the whole charges from the senders, and paid to the appellants what they so received after deducting the English charges, so that no profits were made by the appellant company from the transmission of messages over the land lines of the United Kingdom.(a) And the principle of *Pommery v. Aphorpe* was a little extended in a later case, where the English agent in London only made the contracts for the sale of wine, which was stored in and sent from Rheims, the agent being paid by commission.(b) It was said in the case last cited that there may be profits arising from a trade exercised in England without there being any establishment in this country.

Profits arising
elsewhere—
received by
resident in
England.

With respect to persons resident in the United Kingdom, the words of schedule D. to 16 & 17 Vict. c. 34, seem *prima facie* large enough to impose a liability in respect of all the profits arising from a business carried on abroad, to which such persons become entitled; but it has been decided by the House of Lords that this is not the true construction of the statute, having regard to the rest of schedule D. and to the language of case IV. and case V. in the schedule to s. 100 of 5 & 6 Vict. c. 35. Accordingly, a person resident in the United Kingdom, and engaged on a trade carried on abroad, is liable to pay income tax in respect of so much only of the profits of that trade as are received in the United Kingdom.(c) In the case of mutual insurance companies, the question how far and in what cases the bonuses allotted to the members can be regarded as "profits" is often very difficult of solution. The point has arisen with reference to the special mode of business carried on by an American insurance company in England; and the result of the cases appears to be that where there are no shares or shareholders, but only

(a) *Erichsen v. Last*, 7 Q. B. D. 12; 8 Q. B. D. 414; 51 L. J. Q. B. 86.

(b) *Weile v. Colquhoun*, 20 Q. B. D. 757.

(c) *Colquhoun v. Brooks*, 14 App. Cas. 493. Cf. *Cesena Sulphur Co. v. Nicholson*, 1 Ex. D. 428; *Imperial Continental Gas Co. v. Nicholson*, 37 L. T. 717; and *Alexandria Water Co. v. Musgrave*, 11 Q. B. D. 174; which last case appears a little inconsistent with *Colquhoun v. Brooks*.

members holding participating policies, the amounts of bonuses added to the policies or returned to members are not "profits" assessable to income tax; (a) but *secus*, where *some* part of the bonuses available for such division is applied to payment of interest on shares. (b) Inasmuch as it was held that in the latter case the whole amount of bonuses (and not only the part applied to pay interest) is assessable to income tax, it is plain that the distinction is illogical, and may in some cases work considerable injustice.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Jurisdiction.

It may be convenient to point out in this place that the privilege given by statute (16 & 17 Vict. c. 34, s. 54, and 16 & 17 Vict. c. 91, s. 1) to policy-holders of deducting from their private income tax returns the amount of the annual premiums paid by them under their policies does not extend to policy-holders in foreign insurance companies not registered under 7 & 8 Vict. c. 110. (c)

In the case last cited a doubt is suggested whether the privilege attaches to Scotch companies, which are expressly excepted from 7 & 8 Vict. c. 110. It seems clear, however, that it does attach to such Scotch insurance companies as were in existence on November 1, 1844. (d)

SUMMARY.

JURISDICTION AS TO PERSONAL PROPERTY.

Personal property, according to the English law, is not p. 223. coincident with the class of *movables* contemplated by the law of nations, but includes certain *immovables* as well. The terms are consequently not equivalent.

The maxim "*mobilis sequuntur personam*" applies to p. 224. movables only; i.e., to such personal property as falls under that class.

Such personal property as is immovable comes under the rules which relate to the jurisdiction over immovables generally.

(a) *New York Life Insurance Co. v. Styles*, 14 App. Cas. 381.

(b) *Last v. London Insurance Co.*, 10 App. Cas. 438.

(c) *Colquhoun v. Heddon*, 6 Times Law Rep. 331 (C. A.).

(d) See the words of 16 & 17 Vict. c. 91, s. 1.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

p. 226.

p. 227.

p. 227.

p. 228.

p. 229.

The local law has jurisdiction over movables, in the sense that it controls their possession, by whatever law the right to possession is determined.

Movables follow the person of their owner, and accordingly the law of his domicile governs all transmissions and distributions of movables which arise from an alteration of his personal *status*.

But the effect and validity of a voluntary alienation of movables *inter vivos* is decided by the law of the place where the movables in fact are.

English procedure does not allow service abroad of a writ merely on the ground that the subject-matter of the action is movable property within the jurisdiction. Except in Admiralty causes, the procedure in English courts is *in personam*, not *in rem*.

But jurisdiction over movables within the jurisdiction is asserted in interpleader proceedings and other cases.

ALIENATION OF PERSONAL PROPERTY.

The general principle being that movable personal property is governed by the law of the owner's domicile, it will be as well to consider its application more particularly with regard to its alienation. Alienation of personal property is either by the act of the owner, or by the act of the law. In the first of these cases it is either by transfer *inter vivos*, or by devise. In the second case it may be either by succession, by assignment on bankruptcy, or by the operation of marriage. Each of these cases requires separate consideration.

Transfer of
movables.

(ii.) *Alienation by transfer inter vivos*.—Notwithstanding the general principle that movables are governed by the law of the domicile of the owner, it has been already stated (a) that this principle does not apply to the alienation by the owner of movables by transfer *inter vivos*. Such transfers are, in fact, regulated by the law of the place where the movables happen to be, which

(a) *Ante*, p. 227.

is usually also the place where the forms of transfer are gone through. It is of course important, in considering this question, to distinguish between a *contract* to transfer, and the transfer itself. Two Englishmen may undoubtedly contract either in England or in Germany for the sale of movable property belonging to one of them which is actually in France; and the contract may be perfectly good, though the law of France regard it as insufficient. There may and usually will be a contract enforceable in the English courts, either by an action for damages or in some cases by a suit for specific performance. But such a contract will not *pass the property* in the movables with which it deals if the law of the country where the movables are requires delivery or some other formality as an essential part of the transfer. The validity of the contract is tested by the law of the contract. The law of the contract is not always the law of the place where the contract is made, the place of intended performance, the domicile of the contracting parties, and their presumed intention as to the law which is to govern their agreement being all important elements in deciding this question. But it is submitted that, so far as the actual transfer of title and the right to possession are concerned, the law of the place where the movables are must prevail over the law of the domicile of the parties, and probably over the law of the place where the attempted transfer takes place.(a)

The attention of writers on international law does not seem to have been always directed to this distinction, and their language is not always consistent with the views above expressed. In Story's Conflict of Law, it is said in the text that "it follows as a natural consequence of the rule (that personal property has no locality) that the law of the owner's domicile should in all cases determine the validity of every transfer, alienation, or disposition

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Alienation.

Opinion of
Story—
modified by
his editors.

(a) *Cammell v. Sewell*, 27 L. J. Ex. 447; 29 L. J. Ex. 350; *Castrique v. Imrie*, L. R. 4 H. L. 414; *Hooper v. Gumm*, L. R. 2 Ch. 282; *Williams v. Colonial Bank*, 38 Ch. D. 388, affirmed H. L. May 13, 1890.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Alienation.

made by the owner, whether it be *inter vivos* or post-mortem.”(a) If this language could be supported by the American cases, they would be in direct conflict with the English authorities, so far as alienation *inter vivos* is concerned. But the learned editor of the last edition of Story (1883) (b) commences a long and elaborate note on this passage by saying that the exceptions to the maxim “*mobilia sequuntur personam*” have become so numerous that it cannot be safely invoked for any but the simplest cases at the present day; and he adds: “*The exceptions would probably be less frequent if the maxim were ‘lex situs mobilia regit.’*” Moreover, Story himself, in the same passage, excepts out of the supposed rule all cases where there is some law of the country where the goods are situate, providing for special cases; and further goes on to distinguish between the contract to transfer, and a “positive transfer” itself. It is submitted that it would be an abuse of language to lay down the rule of the *lex domicilii* if the rule of the *lex situs* is one to which there would be fewer exceptions; and that it is desirable rather to distinguish those kinds of alienation which are governed by the *lex situs* from those in which the maxim of the *lex domicilii* can still be safely invoked. So far as alienation or transfer of movables *inter vivos* is concerned, it is believed that the American cases are not in conflict with the English doctrine of the prevalence of the *lex situs*.(c)

Local nature
of certain
movables—
contracts af-
fecting them.

It is pointed out by Story (§ 383), citing with approval the language of Lord Mansfield in one of the earliest cases (d) on the subject, that there are some kinds of personal property which from their own nature have a necessarily implied locality, and that the local nature of such movables requires contracts respecting them “to be carried into execution according to the local law.” Story applies the same rule to “all other local stock or funds, although of a personal nature, or so made by the local law; such as

(a) Story's Conflict of Laws, § 383.

(b) Melville M. Bigelow.

(c) See Bigelow's note, above cited, to Story, § 383, p. 544 (ed. 1883).

(d) *Robinson v. Bland*, 2 Burr. 1079; 1 W. Bl. 247; Story, §§ 364, 383.

bank stock, insurance stock, turnpike, canal, and bridge shares, and other incorporeal property owing its existence to or regulated by peculiar laws." There is no doubt that personal property of the kind mentioned is so intimately connected with their locality that the reasons for regulating transfer of such property by the local law are additionally strong; but Lord Mansfield's language, when looked at, shows that he was speaking rather of the contract to transfer than of the transfer itself, (a) the only instance given by him (applicable to movables) being "a contract concerning stocks." It has already been said that the question of the proper law to govern a contract is quite distinct from that of the proper law to govern a transfer of movables; and Lord Mansfield's reference to the intention of the parties as an element in deciding that law is quite in harmony with the modern cases on the subject. (b)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Alienation.

In support of the proposition that the *lex situs*, or at any rate the *lex situs* when the *situs* is also the place of the transaction, governs alienation of movables, it is necessary to examine more in detail the English cases. In *Simpson v. Fogo* (c) the Courts of Louisiana had refused to recognise the rights of a mortgagee of a British ship, which had been taken by the mortgagors to New Orleans, and was there attached by other creditors without ever having been delivered to the mortgagees. The ship having come again within British jurisdiction, the mortgagees filed a bill to enforce their rights, and Lord Hatherley refused to recognise the judgment and order of the Louisiana Court, under which the ship had been sold, as being directly contrary to the comity of nations. It is to be remarked

(a) "In every disposition or contract where the subject-matter relates locally to England, the law of England must govern, and must have been intended to govern. Thus, a conveyance or will of land, a mortgage, a contract concerning stocks, must all be sued upon in England; and the local nature of the thing requires them to be carried into execution according to the law here": 2 Barr. 1079.

(b) See, e.g., *Jacobs v. Crédit Lyonnais*, 12 Q. B. D. 589, 599; and on this subject generally, see *infra*, Chap. VIII. As to the effect of a transfer in another country of certificates of stock in a foreign railway, see judgment in *Williams v. Colonial Bank*, 38 Ch. D. 388.

(c) 32 L. J. Ch. 249; 1 H. & M. 195.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII

Movables—
Alienation.

Valid transfer
by the *lex*
situs.

that in this particular case the transfer by way of mortgage had been completed long before the ship came within the Louisiana jurisdiction, and Lord Hatherley said that, in his opinion, the American Court was bound to have recognised the principle that a title which a man has legally acquired in one country shall be a good title to him all over the world; further citing with approval the language of an American judge in another case: "If, therefore, according to the *lex loci contractus*, that of the domicile of both parties, the sale transfers the property without delivery, it does so *eo instanti*, or not at all. If two persons in any country choose to bargain as to the property which one of them has in a chattel not within the jurisdiction of the place, they cannot expect that the rights of persons in the country in which the chattel is will there be permitted to be affected; but if the chattel be at sea or in any other place, if any there be, in which the law of no particular country prevails, the bargain will have its full effect *eo instanti* as to the whole world, and the circumstance of the chattel being afterwards brought into a country, according to the laws of which the sale would be invalid, would not affect it." (a) It is to be observed that in *Simpson v. Fogo* the assignment had been completed before the chattel came within the Louisiana jurisdiction, so that the assumption of the Louisiana Court to pronounce upon its ownership must be regarded as wholly unwarrantable from an English point of view. Had the ship been at New Orleans when the mortgage was effected, the validity of the attempted assignment would have been *prohibited* by the *lex loci rei sitæ*, and Lord Hatherley's strictures upon the Louisiana judgment would have been uncalled for. (b) The decision, however, in *Simpson v. Fogo* cannot now be regarded as an authority for the proposition that a foreign judgment is examinable by an English Court for a mistake in private international law, or even for a violation of the rights

(a) *Thuret v. Jenkins*, 7 Martin, 353.(b) *Liverpool Marine Co. v. Hunter*, L. R. 3 Ch. 481.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Alienation.

of nations. It is established by the decision of the House of Lords in *Castrique v. Imrie* (a) that the validity of a foreign judgment can be impeached on no such grounds, except only in cases where the foreign Court has wrongfully assumed a jurisdiction which did not properly belong to it. Blackburn, J., in that case, while commenting on *Simpson v. Fogo*, clearly indicates that the judgment may be supported without impeaching the general proposition that a foreign judgment cannot be examined for error in law, domestic or international, except as to the grounds of its jurisdiction; and if the decision is inconsistent with this theory, it must be regarded as overruled. (b)

Next, with regard to the validity of a transfer of personal chattels which is only good by the *lex loci rei sitæ*, and not supported by the *lex domicilii*, it appears to have been decided by the case of *Cammell v. Sewell* (c) that such a transfer is regarded as good and sufficient by English law. In that case a cargo of timber which had been wrecked on the coast of Norway was sold there by the captain of the vessel, improperly according to English law, but under such circumstances as to convey a good title to a *bond fide* purchaser according to the law of Norway. The timber having been re-sold and brought to England, the English merchant brought trover for it, and it was decided (Byles, J., *dissentiente*) that the action could not be maintained. In pronouncing the judgment of the majority of the Court, Crompton, J., said, after stating the effect of the Norwegian law on the question: "It does not appear to us that there is anything so barbarous or monstrous in this state of the law that we can say that it should not be recognised by us. Our own law as to market overt is analogous. . . . Many cases were mentioned in the course of the argument, and more might be collected, in which it would seem hard that the goods of foreigners should be dealt with according to the laws of our own or of other countries. Among others, our laws as to the seizure of a

(a) L. R. 4 H. L. 414.

(b) *Infra*, Chap. XI.

(c) 27 L. J. Ex. 447; 3 H. & N. 617; S. C. on appeal, 29 L. J. Ex. 350.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Alienation.*

foreigner's goods for rent due from a tenant, or as to the title gained in them, if stolen, by sale in market overt, might appear harsh. But we cannot think that the goods of foreigners would be protected against such laws, or that if the property once passed by virtue of them, it would be changed by being taken by the new owner into the foreigner's own country. We think that the law on this subject was correctly stated by the Lord Chief Baron (a) in the course of the argument in the court below, where he says, 'If personal property is disposed of in a manner binding according to the law of the country where it is, that disposition is binding everywhere;' and we do not think that it makes any difference that the goods were wrecked, and were not intended to be sent to the country where they were sold. We do not think that goods which were wrecked here would on that account be less liable to our laws as to market overt, or as to the landlord's right of distress, because the owners did not foresee that they would come to England." (b) The case of *The Segredo*, (c) which was relied upon in the argument in *Cammell v. Sewell* as an authority for the plaintiff's contention, was referred to with disapprobation in the course of the judgment just quoted from, and the Court said that if Dr. Lushington's judgment in that case was relied on as an authority that the effect of a law of a foreign country, as to the passing of property in a foreign country, was to be disregarded, they were prepared, sitting as a court of error, to dissent from it. So, it seems that the Dutch law as to market overt might have had the effect of passing the property in a cargo sold in the Cape of Good Hope, when the law of Holland prevailed there, if the circumstances of the knowledge of the transaction had not taken the case out of the provisions of such law. (d) In *The Gratitude*, (e) speaking of the

(a) 27 L. J. Ex. 447.

(b) 29 L. J. Ex. 353.

(c) Otherwise *Eliza Cornish*, 1 Spinks, Eccl. & Adm. 36.(d) *Freeman v. E. I. Co.*, 5 B. & Ald. 617, explained by Crompton, J., in *Cammell v. Sewell*, 29 L. J. Ex. 353.

(e) 3 Rob. Adm. Rep. 258.

circumstances under which the captain of a ship might exercise his judgment as to the sale of a cargo in emergencies, Lord Stowell said, "If the master acts unwisely in that decision, still the foreign purchaser will be safe under his acts."

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Alienation.*

The general principle thus laid down, that if personal property is disposed of in a manner binding according to the law of the country where it is, that disposition is binding everywhere, came under the notice of the House of Lords in the more recent case of *Castrique v. Imrie*.^(a) That case was decided on the principle of the validity of a foreign judgment *in rem*, which, in the words of Blackburn, J., in that case, is in truth but a branch of the more general principle which is enunciated in *Cammell v. Sewell*; and it was not there necessary to resort to any such larger principle, or to inquire what qualifications, if any, ought to be attached to it as a general rule. Nevertheless, Blackburn, J., intimated his opinion that the general principle of the validity of a transfer made according to the *lex loci rei sitæ* was correct, though no doubt it might be open to exceptions and qualifications.^(b) It would be difficult, perhaps, to name a general principle of which the same might not be said; and the opinion of Keating, J., in the same case, was avowedly and entirely based on the decision in *Cammell v. Sewell*, and the principles to be drawn from it.

Doctrine of
Cammell v.
Sewell.

The principle of *Cammell v. Sewell* is entirely consistent with the decision in *Hooper v. Gumm*,^(c) on appeal from the judgment of Wood, V.C. There certain ship-builders in America had built several ships, mortgaged them there, sent them to England for sale, sold them there, and paid the mortgagees in America. The mortgages were duly registered in America; but notice of the mortgage being indorsed on the certificate of registry, and having in one case impeded the sale, it was agreed that no such notice should be indorsed in future. Another ship was accord-

^(a) L. R. 4 H. L. 414.

^(b) *Castrique v. Imrie*, L. R. 4 H. L. 429.

^(c) L. R. 2 Ch. 282.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Alienation.

ingly sent over and sold, no notice of the American mortgage being indorsed on her certificate of registry, and the American ship-builders having failed after receiving the money, the mortgagee filed his bill against the purchaser. He failed eventually, on the ground that he had so acted as to suppress the mortgage, and make the ship-builders his agents for the sale, but the language of Turner, L.J., is important with reference to the validity of the sale itself. "In my opinion, the law of this country ought to govern the decision of the case; *for the purchase of the ship, on which the rights of the question depend, was made and completed in this country.* In saying this, however, I must not be understood to mean that the shipping law of America is not to be regarded in deciding the case; on the contrary, I think that great regard must be paid to it. In order to determine what the rights of these parties now are, it must be ascertained what their rights were at the time when the purchase in question was made, and, in order to ascertain this, resort must be had to the American shipping law. The rights of the parties stood upon that law at the time when this purchase was made, and I apprehend that, where rights are acquired under the laws of foreign States, the law of this country recognises and gives effect to those rights, unless it is contrary to the law and policy of this country to do so." It will be seen from the facts in *Simpson v. Fogo (a)* that the American Courts are not equally ready to recognise the rights of property which the laws of foreign States have conferred; but it is plain, from the above citation, that in *Hooper v. Gumm* the validity of the sale in England was referred to the English law alone, and the fact that English law in that case was unusually ready to guide itself by the rules of foreign jurisprudence does not affect the principle. So in *Castrique v. Imrie*, already referred to, where a sale had been decreed under the judgment of a French Court, it was said that even if the English tribunal could review

(a) 1 J. & H. 18; 1 H. & M. 195.

the foreign judgment, the sale in France, made under it, would remain valid, and the title of the purchaser be protected.^(a) And the question of the title to certificates of shares in American railways, indorsed on the back with blank transfers and delivered to English brokers in London, was similarly referred to English law.^(b)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Alienation.*

The decisions in the cases just cited do not in themselves go beyond the question of the validity of a transfer of the property in personal chattels; but cases may easily arise where the complete property in a chattel is not intended to pass, but a mere lien or possessory right conferred, and it would seem that the creation of such a lien is in like manner subject to the *lex loci rei sitæ*. In the case of *Harmer v. Bell (The Bold Buccleugh)* ^{Transfer of lien on chattel governed by *lex situs*.} ^(c) it was held that the lien, which attaches by English law on a ship which causes damage by collision, travels with the vessel into whatever jurisdiction and into whosoever possession it may pass, and, when carried into effect by a proceeding *in rem*, relates back to the period when it first attached. The principle of this case, where the lien so created was held to prevail against a subsequent *bond fide* purchaser without notice, would logically demand the recognition of a lien created in another jurisdiction, and by a law different from that of the Court which was called upon to enforce it, but, as the collision happened in English waters, no conflict of law arose. In the much older case of *Inglis v. Usherwood* ^(d) a lien created by Russian law on a chattel then within its jurisdiction, which the English law would not have conferred, was recognised by the Court, but here again there was no real conflict of law, as the contract out of which the transaction arose was entered into by corre-

(a) L. R. 4 H. L. 414.

(b) *Williams v. Colonial Bank, Williams v. Chartered Bank of Australia*, 36 Ch. D. 659; 38 Ch. D. 388; affirmed H. L. May 12, 1890. "We must look to the American law for the purpose of understanding the constitution of the American railway, and the proper mode of becoming a shareholder in it": per Lindley, L.J., 38 Ch. D. at p. 403.

(c) 7 Moo. P. C. 267. The dictum in *The Volant*, 1 W. Rob. Adm. 387 that damage by collision gives no lien upon the ship in fault, is overruled.

(d) 1 East, 515.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Alienation.

spondence between merchants in London and St. Petersburg, and the vessel was chartered by the English consignee, so that the *lex loci contractus*, as far at least as the rights of the Russian merchant who sought to enforce his lien were concerned, was the same as the *lex loci rei sitæ*. The plaintiff was the assignee of a bankrupt who had commissioned a Russian merchant to purchase certain goods for him and ship them on board a vessel of which the defendant was the captain, chartered by the bankrupt. The goods were shipped, but the shipper hearing of the consignee's bankruptcy, exercised the right of lien given him by the Russian law under such circumstances, and the action was against the captain of the ship for delivering up the cargo to his order. Thus, whether the Russian law was accepted as conclusive because it was that of the place where the vendor had bound himself to perform his contract,^(a) or that of the place where the purchaser had concluded the contract by his agent,^(b) or for the reason just stated, that the goods were within its jurisdiction when it assumed to create the lien in question, was immaterial to the decision, which was, however, clearly put on the last-mentioned ground.

It will be seen that none of the cases above cited as to the *lex loci rei sitæ* contemplate a conflict between that law and the *lex loci actus*. In all of them it is the fact, or it is presumed, that the chattel was, at the time of the disposition or alienation, within the jurisdiction where the alienation was made. The language of the judgments, therefore, not being directed to this distinction, cannot be relied upon as indicative of the rule. Thus, in one case it was said that the question of title "depended on transactions in England;"^(c) whilst in another the rule was laid down as being that "if personal property is disposed of in

(a) *Lebel v. Tucker*, L. R. 3 Q. B. 77; *Trimbey v. Vignier*, 1 Bing. N. C. 151.

(b) *Pattison v. Mills*, 1 Dow & Cl. 342; *Albion Insurance Co. v. Mills*, 3 Wils. & S. 233.

(c) *Williams v. Colonial Bank*, 38 Ch. D. 388, 399, 403; affirmed H. L. May 12, 1890.

a manner binding according to the law of the country *where it is*, that disposition is binding everywhere.”(a) It is submitted, however, that there can be little doubt that the latter more correctly expresses the true principle. If two persons meet in one country, and execute documents or go through forms which profess to transfer the property in movables situate in another country, all that they can do in reality is to enter into a contract for the transfer of the property. The very fact that by the laws of some States the property in chattels cannot pass without delivery (b) shows that delivery is or may be an essential part of the transfer, and that the law of the place where the chattel actually is, being the only law which can physically control the chattel, must prevail over the law of the place where the contracting parties purport to act. The *effect* of the contract for transfer so entered into, as between the parties themselves, is of course a part of the law of contracts, and depends upon the principles applicable to that branch of the subject.(c)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Alienation.

The considerations applicable to the assignment of transitory *choses in action* are necessarily different from those which relate to assignment of movables. In the first place, what is the *situs* of a right of action? It can be recovered in any *forum* which has jurisdiction over the debtor, whether by reason of domicile or transient presence, or because it is the court of the *locus solutionis* or *locus celebrationis*.(d) It will often happen that there will be more than one *forum* in which it can be enforced at the same time, and not only can it be effectively recovered and realised wherever the debtor has property, but even in other countries which recognise the validity of a foreign judgment. Not even the actual presence of the debtor before the *forum* is in some cases necessary in order that the suit may be entertained. It seems manifest, there-

Assignment
of choses in
action,

(a) *Cammell v. Sewell*, 29 L. J. Ex. 350, 353.

(b) See, e.g., *Liverpool Main Credit Co. v. Hunter*, L. R. 3 Ch. 479.

(c) See to this effect the language of Lord Hatherley (adopting an American decision) in *Simpson v. Fogo*, 32 L. J. Ch. 249; citing *Thuret v. Jenkins*, 7 Martin (Am.), 353.

(d) See *infra*, Chap. VIII.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Alienation.

fore, that a *chose in action*—not connected with immovables or property of a local nature (*a*)—has in itself no locality; and though the *forum* of the defendant is sometimes regarded as the *situs* of the debt, because it is that to which the plaintiff ought *prima facie* to resort, (*b*) yet it is only a metaphor to speak of its *situs* at all. It is true that, at the time when it is actually being enforced by suit, it can only be regarded as situate at the *forum* in which the suit is brought; but that consideration does not assist the solution of the question of its *situs* (if any) at the time of the assignment. Moreover, it is quite clear that the *forum* in which the suit is brought must decide all matters relating to the validity and effect of the assignment. The doubtful question is, whether such decision is to be guided by the law of the *forum* or by some other law.

There can be no doubt that, so far as questions of procedure and remedy are concerned, the *lex fori* is always entitled to speak for itself. According to Story, the English rule is that “the inquiry in whose name the suit is to be brought belongs not so much to the right and merit of the claim, as to the remedy.” It is manifest, however, that it cannot be always a matter of procedure and remedy only, whether an assignee can sue in his own name. It may easily happen that he cannot obtain the consent of the assignor to use his, and his right may thus be wholly defeated. The cases cited by Story on this subject are avowedly in conflict, (*c*) and the true principle to look for seems to be, whether the contract was in its nature and inception assignable at all, and, if so, subject to what restrictions or limitations. Thus, in a case decided before *choses in action* were assignable at all by English law, the judges seem clearly to have been of opinion that the assignee of an Irish judgment, made

(*a*) Story, § 383; *Robinson v. Bland*, 2 Burr. 1077.

(*b*) *Hart v. Herwig*, L. R. 8 Ch. 860, 864.

(*c*) Story, Conf., § 565. See *Jeffery v. M'Taggart*, 6 M. & S. 126; *Wolff v. Ozholme*, *ibid.* p. 99; *Smith v. Buchanan*, 1 East, 11; *Alison v. Furnival*, 1 C. M. & R. 277; *infra*, Chap. X.

assignable by an Irish statute, could sue in his own name in England.(a) There seems, indeed, no reason why the *assignability* of a contract should be a matter for the *lex fori*, if the *negotiability* of a contract is not; and though there has been considerable conflict of opinion as to whether bills of exchange have been validly indorsed, the conflict has always been between the law of the place of acceptance and that of the place of indorsement. It has never been suggested in such cases that the sufficiency of the indorsement is to be decided by the *lex fori*, or that the question whether the indorsee must sue in the name of the drawer is merely matter of remedy and procedure.(b)

It is therefore submitted with some confidence that the question whether a *chose in action* has been validly assigned is not usually one for the *lex fori* to decide. In deciding what the proper law to decide this question is, it must be borne in mind that *choses in action* are of different natures. The distinction between contract and tort is one which arises at the very outset of the subject. By what law the right to sue in damages for a tort may be validly assigned is a question which does not seem to have arisen. If the nature of the tort has nothing local about it, pointing to one *forum* rather than another (which will seldom be the case), it may be that the court in which it is sought to put the right of action in suit will have recourse to its own law to decide as to its assignability. But this is a mere academic question, of little importance as compared to the larger subject of the assignment of *choses in action* arising out of contracts. Assuming that this is not within the province of the *lex fori*, it follows almost necessarily that it must be for the *lex contractus*—the law, that is, which determines the nature and incidents of the obligation.

(a) *O'Callaghan v. Thomond*, 3 Taunt. 82. Cf. *Thompson v. Bell*, 23 L. J. Q. B. 159.

(b) *Smallpage's Case*, 30 Ch. D. 598; *Lebel v. Tucker*, L. R. 3 Q. B. 77; *Trimby v. Vignier*, 1 Bing. N. C. 151; *Bradlaugh v. De Rin*, L. R. 5 C. P. 473; *De la Chaumette v. Bank of England*, 2 B. & Ad. 385; *infra*, Chap. VIII.; Chap. X. Cf. judgment of Lord Campbell in *Thompson v. Bell*, 23 L. J. Q. B. 159.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Alienation.

The determination of this law will be found discussed at considerable length under the proper heading.(a)

The English decisions on this branch of the subject are scanty. In the most recent case,(b) the assignment sued on was an assignment in Cape Colony by a husband, there domiciled, to his wife of a policy in an English insurance company. The assignment was void by Cape law, on the ground that the assignor and the assignee were man and wife. It was held that the assignment was invalid, proceeding rather on the assumption that the question turned on the validity of the contract to assign, and that the parties were man and wife domiciled in Cape Colony. It is manifest that, as between husband and wife, the law of the matrimonial domicile has a much stronger claim to be heard than the *lex domicilii* in ordinary cases. The judgment of the other member of the Court (Wills, J.) was based upon the principle of the *lex contractus*, and the assignability of the contract in its inception. The reasonable view (the learned judge said) was that the insurance company had contracted with a person residing in South Africa, knowing that if the policy was assigned there, it would be assigned subject to, and would be governed by, the local law.(c)

Notice of
assignment.

It has sometimes been said that there is a close analogy between notice of an assignment of a *chose in action*, which some laws require to perfect it, and delivery of a corporeal tangible chattel. The analogy appears a little fanciful, inasmuch as delivery gives possession, whilst notice of assignment only fulfils a direction imposed by the law it purports to follow. There appears no reason for distinguishing in this matter between formalities required at the time of assignment and formalities required after the assignment. English law, for example, requires that assignment of *choses in action* should be in writing,

(a) *Infra*, Chap. VIII., "Contracts—Nature and Incidents of Obligation."

(b) *Lee v. Abdy*, 17 Q. B. D. 309. Cf. *Thompson v. Bell*, 23 L. J. Q. B. 159.

(c) *Lee v. Abdy*, 17 Q. B. D. 309, 314. See cases cited *ante*, p. 246.

not by way of charge, and that written notice should be given to the debtor.(a) It would seem strange to demand that this last requirement should be fulfilled in the case of an assignment abroad of the benefit of a foreign contract, sued on in England; and to admit at the same time that the assignability of the contract in other respects depended, not upon English law, but upon the law of the contract.(b) It is submitted that the question of notice to the debtor, like other questions of assignability, must be determined by considering the original contract into which the debtor entered.(c)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Alienation.

SUMMARY.

ALIENATION OF MOVABLE PERSONAL PROPERTY BY TRANSFER INTER VIVOS.

When alienation of movable personal property is pp. 236-247. effected by transfer *inter vivos*, the law regards not so much the person and domicile of the owner, as the act or transfer by which the transfer is effected, and the situation, in fact, of the property transferred.

If the property transferred, and the parties to the p. 239. transfer, are all within the same jurisdiction, the transfer, according to the law of that jurisdiction, will confer a good title valid everywhere, under the dominion of whatever law the property afterwards passes.

When the parties to the transfer are in one jurisdiction pp. 246, 247. and the property dealt with is in another, the authorities are ambiguous; but *semble*, such a title will not be conferred if the property, at the moment of the transfer, be within another jurisdiction, by the law of which the attempted transfer is invalid or imperfect.

And *semble* further if the transfer be valid, according p. 241. to the law of the place where the property is in fact

(a) Jud. Act, 1873 (36 & 37 Vict. c. 66), s. 25 (6).

(b) *O'Callaghan v. Thomond*, 3 Taunt. 82; *Thompson v. Bell*, 23 L. J. Q. B. 159.

(c) See on this subject *Sill v. Wornwick*, 1 H. Bl. 691; *Selkrig v. Davis*, 2 Rose, 315.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

p. 245.

situate, the title conferred by it should be recognised as good everywhere, though imperfect by the law of the former owner's domicile, and though the property be afterwards brought within the dominion of that law.

The creation of a lien upon movable personal property is similarly referred to the law of the place where the property was in fact situate at the time when the lien was created (*semble*).

pp. 247-250.

Assignments of *choses in action* are governed by the *lex fori* as to remedy and procedure only. In cases of contract, the assignability and mode of assignment of the resulting *choses in action* seem to depend upon the original *lex contractus*. The question of notice to the debtor should be referred to the same law.

(iii.) *Succession to Movable Personal Property.*

Movable
successions—
how far
governed by
lex domicilii.

(a) *Disposition of Movable Personal Property by Will.*—It has been very generally stated, as a maxim of private international jurisprudence, that wills of movable personal property are in all cases governed by the *lex domicilii* of the testator; (a) and the law was laid down by Lord Westbury in *Enohin v. Wylie*, in terms which have been since the subject of some criticism: "It is now put beyond all possibility of question that the administration of the estate of a deceased person belongs to the Court of the country where the deceased was domiciled at his death. All questions of testacy and intestacy belong to the judge of the domicile. To the Court of the domicile belongs the interpretation and construction of the will of the testator. To determine who are the next of kin or heirs of the personal estate of the testator is the prerogative of the judge of the domicile. In short, the Court of the domicile is the *forum concursus*, to which the

(a) *Potter v. Brown*, 5 East, 130; *Sill v. Worswick*, 1 H. Bl. 690; *Price v. Dechurst*, 4 My. & Cr. 76; *De Bonneval v. De Bonneval*, 1 Curt. 856; *Dolphin v. Robins*, 1 Sw. & Tr. 37; *De Zichy Ferraris v. Hertford*, 3 Curt. 468; *Enohin v. Wylie*, 10 H. L. C. 1.

legatees under the will of a testator, or the parties entitled to distribution of the estate of an intestate, are required to resort.”(a) But this language, so far as it asserts that the *forum* of the domicile is the Court *exclusively* entitled to administer the estate of a deceased testator or intestate, is now admittedly incorrect. On the contrary, whenever administration or probate has been obtained in England, the English Court will make a general decree for the administration of all the assets, wherever situate; the principle being that the executors, trustees, or administrators are personally subject to its jurisdiction, and should be controlled by it.(b) And where no proceedings are in fact pending in the *forum* of the domicile, it appears from the *Orr-Ewing Case* that the English Court has no discretion to refuse the general relief; though it is often more convenient and proper that the trusts—*e.g.*, of Scotch property held by Scotch trustees—should be administered by a Scotch rather than by an English Court; and leave to serve an English writ abroad has been refused in such a case.(c) And it was pointed out in the *Orr-Ewing Case* that if English trustees, having in their hands English trust funds, were found within the jurisdiction of the Scottish Courts, those Courts, upon the same principle, might compel them to do their duty.(d) The proposition, therefore, that only the Courts of that country in which a testator dies domiciled can administer his personal estate, is incorrect.(e)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

But the *forum* of the domicile not exclusively entitled to administer.

It is, however, in all cases the *lex domicilii* which should determine the right of succession. The rule has been recently stated to be, that although the parties claim-

(a) 10 H. L. C. 13; *Preston v. Melville*, 8 Cl. & F. 1; *Doglioni v. Crispin*, L. R. 1 H. L. 301.

(b) *Ewing v. Orr-Ewing*, 9 App. Cas. 34, 41; 10 App. Cas. 453; *Johnston v. Beattie*, 10 Cl. & F. 42, 84; *Stirling Maxwell v. Cartwright*, 11 Ch. D. 523.

(c) *Creswell v. Parker*, 11 Ch. D. 601.

(d) *Ferguson v. Douglas*, 3 Pat. App. Cas. (Sc.) 503, 510.

(e) Per Lord Selborne in *Ewing v. Orr-Ewing*, 9 App. Cas. 34, 39; commenting on *Enoch v. Wylie*, 10 H. L. C. 1.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

ing to be entitled to the estate of a deceased person may not be bound to resort to the tribunals of the country in which the deceased was domiciled, and although the Courts of this country may be called upon to administer the estate of a deceased person domiciled abroad, and in such case may be bound to ascertain, as best they can, who, according to the law of the domicil, are entitled to that estate; yet, where the title has been adjudicated upon by the Courts of the domicil, such adjudication is binding upon, and must be followed by, the Courts of this country.(a) Moreover, it would appear to be only for the purpose of determining the right of succession that the *lex domicilii* can be invoked. "So far as relates to domicil, it has always appeared to me to be clear that the domicil of a deceased testator or intestate cannot in principle furnish any governing or necessary rule, except for the purpose of determining the succession to movable estate. For that purpose, recourse must be had, not always or necessarily to the Courts, but always and necessarily to the law, of the domicil. The succession being once ascertained, the rights resulting therefrom belong to, and follow the person of, the living successor, and not the dead predecessor."(b)

Change of
domicil—
effect of.

The *lex domicilii* spoken of in the cases just discussed is of course the law of the testator's (or intestate's) domicil at the time of his death, not at the time the will was made.(c) According to the continental view, the validity of a will is tested either by the law of the domicil or by the law of the place where it was made, following the maxim "*locus regit actum*;" and a change of domicil after execution of the will and before death is, therefore, immaterial. In an English court the question would assume a different aspect. If the domicil of the testator at the

(a) *In re Trufort, Trafford v. Blanc*, 36 Ch. D. 600, 611. As to judgments obtained by default, mistake, or fraud, *vide infra*, Chap. IX.

(b) Per Lord Selborne, C., in *Ewing v. Orr-Ewing*, 10 App. Cas. (Sc.) 453, 502.

(c) *Enohin v. Wylie*, 10 H. L. C. 1; *Bremer v. Freeman*, 10 Moo. P. C. 312; *Collier v. Rivaz*, 2 Curt. 855.

time of his death was foreign, it is submitted as clear that the law of that domicile would be followed as to the validity of the will; and if that law recognised as valid a will made either in accordance with the law of a former domicile, or with the law of the place of execution, the above authorities point to the acceptance by the English Court of that decision. But if the domicile of the testator at the time of death is English, and the will is not in accordance with English law, it would clearly be invalid, apart from statutory provisions.^(a)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Succession.*

It is now, however, unnecessary to consider whether a testator, being a British subject, has changed his domicile since making his will, since, as regards British subjects, it was enacted by Lord Kingsdown's Act (24 & 25 Vict. c. 114),^{24 & 25 Vict. c. 114.} first, that any will of personal estate made out of the United Kingdom by a British subject, wherever domiciled at the time of making or of death, should be admitted to probate as valid, if it was executed in compliance with the forms prescribed either by the *lex loci actus*, the *lex domicilii* at the time of its execution, or the *lex domicilii originis* of the testator. Secondly, that any will of personal estate made within the United Kingdom by a British subject, whatever his domicile at either time, should be admitted to probate as valid, if it was executed in compliance with the forms required by the laws for the time being in force in that part of the kingdom where it was made (s. 2). And, thirdly, that no will or other testamentary instrument should be held to be revoked or to have become invalid, nor should the construction thereof be altered, by reason of any subsequent change of domicile of the person making the same (s. 3). But it has been held that a will and revocation, executed according to the testator's domicile at the time of his death, revokes altogether a will made under a former English domicile, with the appointment of

(a) *In the Goods of Reid*, L. R. 1 P. & D. 74; *In the Goods of Rippon*, 32 L. J. P. & M. 141.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

executors contained in it, if the intention that it should have that effect is apparent.(a) This last section is not in terms confined to the wills of British subjects, but, having regard to the title of the Act ("An Act to amend the law with respect to wills of personal estate made by *British subjects*"), it is difficult to see how it could be extended to the wills of foreigners who should have acquired a British domicile between the time of making their will and that of their death.(b) Assuming that the section cannot be so extended, the validity of such a will would have to be decided upon its compliance or non-compliance with the requirements of English law, and the fact that it was valid by the law of the testator's domicile at the time of making would be immaterial. With regard to the alternative tests of validity offered by the first two sections, it was decided by Lord Penzance(c) that only one can be adopted in each case, and that it is not competent for those who seek to set up a testamentary paper to endeavour to secure the advantages of two conflicting jurisdictions. The privileges conferred by the Act attach to British subjects by naturalisation (under 7 & 8 Vict. c. 66) as if they had been so by birth.(d) But the provision in the Naturalisation Act, 1870 (33 Vict. c. 14), s. 2, enacting that real and personal property may be "taken, acquired, held, and disposed of by an alien in the same manner in all respects as by a natural-born British subject," has been held not to confer upon aliens the privileges as to making wills which are given to British subjects by Lord Kingsdown's Act.(e) In the case just cited it was said by Lord Selborne, that though the words "disposed of" in the Naturalisation Act must include a disposition by will, yet in determining what is

(a) *Cottrell v. Cottrell*, L. R. 2 P. & D. 400.(b) See *In the Goods of Von Buseck*, 6 P. D. 211; and *infra*.(c) *Pechell v. Hilderley*, L. R. 1 P. & D. 673.(d) *In the Goods of Gally*, L. R. 1 P. D. 438.(e) *Bloxam v. Favre*, 9 P. D. 130. See, to the same effect, *In the Goods of Von Buseck*, 6 P. D. 211.

a valid will of an alien, the general principles of law already laid down must still be applied. As to the possible effect of marriage in England after the acquisition of an English domicile upon the validity of a will previously made, having regard to the provisions of the 3rd section, see *In the Goods of Reid*.(a) And where the testator, being a naturalised Englishman, whose domicile was not ascertained, but appeared to be French, made in France a will and codicils in English form, and a holograph will confirming them in French form, it was held that all were valid under s. 1 of the Act, it being proved that the French law permitted foreigners in France to make their will according to the forms required by the law of their nationality; so that the French will was good directly, and the English will and codicils indirectly, by the *lex loci actus*.(b)

The general rule that the law of the domicile governs testamentary dispositions of personalty applies to capacity, and there can be little doubt that, whatever may be the claims of the *lex loci* with reference to capacity to do an act or enter into a contract within its jurisdiction,(c) the right of the *lex domicilii* is indisputable when the capacity to make a will is in question.(d) The capacity of a legatee to take under a will is similarly referred to the *lex domicilii*, but in this case it is the law of the domicile of the legatee, not of the testator, which determines the question.(e)

With regard to *forms and solemnities*, the question of the proper law by which wills of personalty should be tested was for some time left undecided, it having been thought at one period that there was a difference between the will of an English subject domiciled abroad and that of a foreigner similarly situated; and it was held in

(a) L. R. 1 P. & D. 74.

(b) *In the Goods of Lacroix*, L. R. 2 P. D. 95.

(c) As to the question of capacity for these purposes, see *ante*, Chap. III.

(d) *Story*, Conf., § 103; *Westlake*, P. I. L., § 401; *Enoch v. Wylie*, 10 H. L. C. 13; *Dogliani v. Crispin*, L. R. 1 H. L. 301; *Ewing v. Orr-Ewing*, 10 App. Cas. 453, 502.

(e) *Re Hellman's Will*, L. R. 2 Eq. 363.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

several cases that compliance with the English forms by an English subject was sufficient (a) and necessary. (b) But this distinction was exploded, and the principle of referring to the decision of the *lex domicilii*, and of the *lex domicilii* alone, firmly established by subsequent decisions. (c) The alteration made in the English law on this subject by Lord Kingsdown's Act (24 & 25 Vict. c. 114) has been already pointed out.

Change of *lex domicilii* after death.

Further, by the law of the testator's domicil is meant not only the law of his domicil at the time of his death, but *the law at the time of his death* of his domicil at the time of his death. In *Lynch v. Provisional Government of Paraguay*, (d) a domiciled Paraguayan died in Paraguay, leaving personal property in England. After his death all his property wherever situate became by a change in Paraguayan law the property of the nation of Paraguay, and his will became by the same law absolutely invalid. It was held, however, that the legatee under the will of the property in England was entitled to probate here notwithstanding, and that no retrospective operation could be attributed to the Paraguayan decree. "The question is," said Lord Penzance, "in what sense does the English law adopt the law of the domicil? Does it adopt the law of the domicil as it stands at the time of the death, or does it undertake to adopt and give effect to all retrospective changes that the legislative authority of the foreign country may make in that law? No authority has been cited for this latter proposition, and in principle it appears both inconvenient and unjust. Inconvenient, for letters of administration or probate might be granted in this country which this Court might afterwards be called upon, in conformity with the change of law in the foreign country, to revoke. Unjust, because those entitled

(a) *Duchess of Kingston's Case*, cited 2 Addams, 21.

(b) *Curling v. Thornton*, 2 Addams, 21.

(c) *Stanley v. Bernes*, 3 Hagg. Eccl. 373; *Moore v. Darell*, 4 Hagg. Eccl. 346; *Price v. Dechurst*, 4 My. & Cr. 76; *De Zichy Ferraris v. Hertford*, 4 Moo. P. C. 339; *Laneville v. Anderson*, 2 Sw. & Tr. 24.

(d) L. R. 2 P. & D. 268.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

to the succession might, before any change, have acted directly or indirectly upon the existing state of things, and find their interests seriously compromised by the altered law. As, therefore, I can find no warrant in authority or principle for a more extended proposition, I must hold myself limited to the adoption and application of this proposition, that the law of the place of domicile as it existed at the time of the death ought to regulate the succession to the deceased in this case." The rule which refers all questions of the validity of a will to the law of the testator's domicile applies not only to the formal requisites of execution, but to all objections which could be raised in the Court of the domicile. Where the will of the testatrix had been duly proved in Jersey, where she was domiciled, it was not allowed to be impeached in the Court of Probate here on the ground that the testatrix was of unsound mind or that it was obtained by undue influence.(a)

Where a power of appointment by will to personalty has been given under English law, and a will is made in pursuance of the power appointing to personalty situate in England, in conformity with the English law, but not with the law of the testator's domicile, the English Court of Probate, according to the latest decisions, will accept the will and grant probate of it.(b) The question, however, can hardly be said to be in a satisfactory condition. According to *Tatnall v. Hankey*,(c) it is the English Court of Probate which in such a case must pronounce upon the testamentary character of the alleged will. It does not clearly appear by what law it is to guide itself in so doing, though Story,(d) and apparently Westlake,(e) assumes that English law is meant. Lord Penzance, however, appeared to consider that, according to this case, and the later one of *Barnes v. Vincent*,(f) it was the duty of the Court to

Testamentary powers of appointment by will.

By what law to be tested.

(a) *Miller v. James*, L. R. 3 P. & D. 4.(b) *In the Goods of Hallyburton*, L. R. 1 P. & D. 90; *In the Goods of Alexander*, 29 L. J. P. & M. 93.

(c) 2 Moo. P. C. 342.

(e) Priv. Int. Law, § 327.

(d) Conflict of Laws, § 473 a.

(f) 5 Moo. P. C. 201.

PART II.
PROPERTY,

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

inquire, where the English law was applicable, whether the will was executed according to the Wills Act, and, where the law of a foreign country was applicable, whether it was executed according to the law of the domicile or foreign country.(a) The cases cited appear to be direct authorities that the terms of the power in such cases are not to be looked at by the English Court of Probate, and so Lord Penzance considered them, but nevertheless felt himself compelled, on the later authority of Sir C. Cresswell in the case of *In the Goods of Alexander*,(b) to come to a decision directly opposed to them, expressing at the same time a preference for the rule of the law of the domicile in such cases, which had been previously approved of by Sir C. Cresswell himself in the case of *Crookenden v. Fuller*.(c) Probate will therefore be granted in such cases if the will be executed in conformity with the power, without reference to the requirements of the law of the testator's domicile. As to the effect of such grant of probate, Mr. Farwell says in his note to *Tatnall v. Hankey* that it would conclude any one from objecting in the Court of Chancery that the instrument proved was not the will of the testator, citing *D'Huart v. Harkness* (34 L. J. Ch. 311), *Dolphin v. Robins* (7 H. L. C. 390), and calling attention to the effect of Lord Kingsdown's Act upon such cases for the future. In the case of *In the Goods of Hallyburton*, the will having been made in Scotland according to the English form, and being invalid by the Scotch law, which was that of the domicile of the testatrix, was not affected by the 2nd section of Lord Kingsdown's Act (24 & 25 Vict. c. 114, s. 2). According to *D'Huart v. Harkness* (d) a power given by will to appoint to personalty "by a will duly executed" is well exercised by a will good according to the law of the country of the testator's domicile, though ill executed according to the law of the country where the personalty is situated, and where the original testator was

(a) *In the Goods of Hallyburton*, L. R. 1 P. & D. 93.

(b) 29 L. J. P. & M. 93.

(c) 29 L. J. P. & M. 1; 1 Sw. & Tr. 454.

(d) 34 L. J. Ch. 311.

PART II.
PROPERTY.
CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Succession.*

domiciled. Probate had been granted in England to the will which purported to appoint. Lord Romilly said in that case: "The power must be exercised by a will valid according to the law of England; but the law of England admits the validity of two classes of wills, namely, wills executed in accordance with the English statute, and wills of persons domiciled abroad executed according to the law of their domicile; and wills of the latter class effectually dispose of personal property in England. The cases which have been cited decide that such powers as these may be executed by wills of the former class, although the testator dies domiciled abroad, but there is no decision that they may not also be exercised by wills of the latter class. On the contrary, the law takes a broad view, and allows the execution of such powers by a will which is executed in conformity either with the law of England or with the law of the testator's domicile." (a) The cases cited to which Lord Romilly referred were *Tatnall v. Hankey* and *In the Goods of Alexander*, (b) and his view of the law as there laid down has been since confirmed, as already mentioned, by Lord Penzance in *In the Goods of Hallyburton*; (c) but Lord Penzance's criticisms on the principle he felt compelled to follow would detract from the weight of the authority in a court of appeal. Where an instrument was executed purporting to be in exercise of a power of appointment by will, and the Ecclesiastical Court, in 1834, determined that it was a valid will, and admitted it to probate, Sir John Leach, in a suit in Chancery involving the same question, though not strictly between the same parties, held that the validity of the instrument as a will could not be contested. (d) The judgment recognised was of course the judgment of a Court created by the same sovereign jurisdiction; but the principles of international law would seem to require a similar recognition, at any rate in suits between parties or privies, if the tribunal

(a) *D'Huart v. Harkness*, 34 L. J. Ch. 311, 313.

(b) 2 Moo. P. C. 342; 29 L. J. P. & M. 93.

(c) L. R. 1 P. & D. 90.

(d) *Douglas v. Cooper*, 3 My. & K. 378.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Succession.*

Construction
of wills of
movables—
legitimacy of
legatee not a
matter of con-
struction,

which pronounced upon the will had been a foreign Court, in the country where the deceased was domiciled.(a)

As to the *interpretation and construction* of wills of personal estate, there is no doubt but that the law of the domicile speaks alone,(b) unless there is sufficient on the face of the will to show a different intention in the testator, and this not only in the *forum domicilii* but wherever such questions arise.(c) In *Enohin v. Wylie*, Lord Westbury says: "All questions of testacy and intestacy belong to the judge of the domicile. To the Court of the domicile belongs the interpretation and construction of the will of the testator." (d) Thus, in *Anstruther v. Chalmers*,(e) a Scotch lady died domiciled in England, having made a will in the Scotch form whilst on a visit to Scotland. The universal legatee having died in the lifetime of the testatrix, his representative became entitled by Scotch law. It was held, however, that the law of England must govern the construction, and that the gift consequently lapsed. Similarly, technical expressions or words of quantity or value in a will are to be interpreted as they would be in the courts of the testator's domicile. The cases on this part of the subject are fully discussed in Story, and it is unnecessary to do more than refer to them here.(f)

But although the interpretation of words in a will is governed by the law of the domicile of the testator, yet it is now conclusively established that the meaning of the word "child" in a will, *i.e.*, the legitimacy of a descendant,

(a) See *infra*, Chap. XI.

(b) *Yates v. Thompson*, 3 Cl. & F. 544; *Enohin v. Wylie*, 10 H. L. C. 1; *Anstruther v. Chalmers*, 2 Sim. 1.

(c) *Trotter v. Trotter*, 4 Bligh, N. S. 502; 3 Wils. & S. 407.

(d) 10 H. L. C. 13.

(e) 2 Sim. 1; see *Yates v. Thompson*, 3 Cl. & F. 544, 569; *Ommaney v. Bingham*, 3 Hagg. Eccl. 414, n.

(f) Story, Conf., § 479 (a), (b); *Pierson v. Garnett*, 2 Bro. Ch. 38; *Malcolm v. Martin*, 3 Bro. Ch. 50; *Saunders v. Drake*, 2 Atk. 465; *Wallis v. Brightwell*, 2 P. Wms. 88; *Lansdown v. Lansdown*, 2 Bligh, 60; *Laneville v. Anderson*, 2 Sw. & Tr. 24; *Stewart v. Garnett*, 3 Sim. 398. As to the practice of the Court of Chancery in ignoring the rate of exchange, see *Cockerell v. Barber*, 16 Ves. 461; *Campbell v. Graham*, 1 Russ. & M. 453.

is not a matter of interpretation at all. Accordingly, the legitimacy of a legatee, like his capacity,^(a) is referred to the personal law of the legatee, that is, to the law of his domicile, and not to the law of the domicile of the testator.^(b) The decision of the Court of Appeal in *Re Goodman's Trusts*, just cited, was emphatically speaking an epoch in the history of this branch of the subject, inasmuch as it had been previously held by Lord Hatherley that the legitimacy of the legatee depended upon the law of the testator's domicile, not upon the law of his own, and the decision was expressly put by that learned judge upon the ground that it belonged to the law of the testator's domicile to interpret the meaning of the word "child" in his will. In one sense it is true that the law of the testator's domicile has the right to interpret the meaning of the word "child" in his will. "But the question is, what is the rule which the English law [the law of the testator's domicile] adopts and applies to a non-English child? This is a question of international comity and international law. According to that law . . . the *status* of a person, his legitimacy or illegitimacy, is to be determined everywhere by the law of the country of his origin—the law under which he was born."^(c) The decision of Lord Hatherley was declared in the same case to be contrary to principle, and erroneous. *Boyes v. Bedale* must therefore be regarded as no longer law. It must be noted that *Re Goodman's Trusts* was a case, not of a will (like *Boyes v. Bedale*), but of intestacy; but it is clear from the judgments and on principle that cases of intestacy and testacy are governed by the same rule. The legitimacy of legatees, as well as of next of kin, is referred by English law to the law of their domicile, that is, to the law of the domicile of their father at the time of their birth. It has been seen above (Chap. IV.)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

but referred
to the law
of legatee's
domicil.

(a) *Re Hellman's Will*, L. R. 2 Eq. 363.

(b) *Re Goodman's Trusts*, 17 Ch. D. 266; 50 L. J. Ch. 425; overruling *Boyes v. Bedale*, 1 H. & M. 798; and approving *Skottowe v. Young*, L. R. 11 Eq. 474, and *Re Wright's Trusts*, 25 L. J. Ch. 621.

(c) *Re Goodman's Trusts*, 17 Ch. D. 266, per James, L.J.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

Testator's
intention to
evade *lex*
domicilii.

that, in cases of legitimisation *per subsequens matrimonium*, the legitimisation must be recognised by the law of the father's domicile at the time of birth and at the time of the subsequent marriage.(a)

As the law of the testator's domicile, when left to itself, will decide all questions connected with the construction and effect of his will that were not expressly contemplated, so any attempt by the testator himself to evade the provisions of that law will be futile. Thus, in *Hog v. Lashley*,(b) it was held that though the personalty referred to by the will was locally situate in England, a Scotch testator could not exclude his children from the *legitim* or share in it given imperatively by the Scotch law. Similarly, in *Ommaney v. Bingham*,(c) the law of the testator's domicile was referred to in order to decide whether or not a condition in restraint of marriage, with a bequest over, was void.

Foreign wills,
when entitled
to probate.

A question has often arisen as to what wills are entitled to probate in the English Court, and it appears to be now settled that a will disposing *solely* of property situate abroad will not be admitted to probate here, unless it is incorporated by reference in another will entitled to probate on its own account, as disposing of property within this jurisdiction.(d) Unless so incorporated, it is not entitled to probate here.(e) But it seems that a mere mention in the English will of an intention to ratify and confirm the foreign one will be sufficient to incorporate it, so as to entitle it to probate.(f) And where a testator expressed a distinct intention, in a will disposing of British property, that it should be regarded as independent of, and disconnected from, his general will, which disposed of other property in America at much greater length, Sir J. Hannen allowed the English will to

(a) *In re Grove, Vaucher v. Treasury*, 40 Ch. D. 216; see *ante*, Chap. IV.

(b) 6 Bro. P. C. 577; 3 Hagg. Eccl. 415.

(c) 5 Ves. 757; 3 Hagg. Eccl. 414.

(d) *In the Goods of Lord Howden*, 43 L. J. P. & M. 27.

(e) *In the Goods of Cood*, L. R. 1 P. & D. 449.

(f) *In the Goods of Harris*, L. R. 2 P. & D. 83; 39 L. J. P. & M. 48; *In the Goods of De la Saussaye*, L. R. 3 P. & D. 43; 42 L. J. P. & M. 47.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

be admitted to probate alone, an authenticated copy of the American will and codicils being ordered to be filed in the registry, and a note of such filing appended to the English probate.(a) So where the testator, a domiciled Englishman, had made an English will in England, and afterwards a will in South America in the foreign form, disposing of all his property there (and *pro tanto* revoking previous dispositions of it, probate was granted of the English will only; and (by consent) the Spanish will, which had been deposited in the registry here, was ordered to be given out for probate abroad.(b)

A foreign grant of probate granted by the competent Court, *i.e.*, the Court of the domicile of the deceased, will be followed by the English Court of Probate when application is made for a grant of probate or administration with the will annexed here.(c) In the case of *In the Goods of Earl* (c) the person who had obtained probate as executrix from the Court of the domicile in New South Wales was not entitled to the grant here, but the Court granted her administration with the will annexed, under the discretionary power conferred upon it by 20 & 21 Vict. c. 77, s. 73. Lord Penzance, in reviewing the previous decisions on the subject, said, "The result of the cases (d) is that in the Prerogative Court the tendency was to follow the foreign grant where it could be done, but there was a reluctance to lay down any general rule on the matter; while the decisions in the Court of Probate have militated against the rule of following the foreign grant." Lord Penzance, after having referred to the *dicta* of Lord Westbury on the subject in *Enohin v. Wylie*,(e) proceeded to say that he thought the Court ought to act upon the special power

Foreign grant
of probate
followed by
English
Court.

(a) *In the Goods of Astor*, L. R. 1 P. D. 150.

(b) *In the Goods of Smart*, 9 P. D. 64.

(c) *In the Goods of Earl*, L. R. 1 P. & D. 450; *In the Goods of Hill*, L. R. 2 P. & D. 89; *infra*, p. 273.

(d) *Larpen v. Sindry*, 1 Hagg. Eccl. 383; *In the Goods of Read*, 1 Hagg. Eccl. 476; *Countess D'Acunha's Case*, 1 Hagg. Eccl. 237; *Duchess of Orleans' Case*, 1 Sw. & Tr. 253; 28 L. J. P. & M. 129; *Viesca v. D'Arambura*, 2 Curt. 280; *In the Goods of Stewart*, 1 Curt. 904; *In the Goods of Rogerson*, 2 Curt. 656.

(e) 10 H. L. C. 115.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

Succession to
movables *ab*
intestato—
governed by
lex domicilii
—legitimacy
of next of kin
by law of their
domicil.

given to it by 20 & 21 Vict. c. 77, s. 73, and make a grant in all such cases to the person who had been clothed by the Court of the country of domicil with the power and duty of administering the estate, no matter who he was or on what ground he had been clothed with that power. The same principle was adopted in the case of *In the Goods of Hill*,^(a) where administration *de bonis* had been granted in America to those who applied for a similar grant here, the testatrix having died domiciled in America, and there being personal estate unadministered in this country.

(b) *Succession to Movable Personal Property by Operation of Law.*—It will have been already gathered from what has been said as to the law which governs the disposition of personal chattels by will, that the same principle of the *lex domicilii* applies to succession to personal chattels *ab intestato*. The words of Lord Westbury, cited above,^(b) in *Enohin v. Wylie* ^(c) are as applicable to cases of succession *ab intestato* as to those of testacy. "It is now put beyond all possibility of question that the administration of the estate of a deceased person belongs to the Court of the country where the deceased was domiciled at the time of his death. All questions of testacy and intestacy belong to the judge of the domicil."^(d)

It has been already stated that this language, so far as it asserts an *exclusive* right in the *forum domicilii*, is too large,^(e) but it is fully supported by recent authority so far as the *lex domicilii* is concerned; and for the purpose of determining the succession to movable estate, Lord Selborne has said that "recourse must be had, not

(a) L. R. 2 P. & D. 89; so *In the Goods of Smith*, 16 W. R. 1130.

(b) *Supra*, p. 252.

(c) 1 H. L. C. 13.

(d) Cf. Sir R. Arden's language in *Somerville v. Somerville*, 5 Ves. 786. Other authorities to the same effect on the general question are: *Pipon v. Pipon*, Amb. 25; *Thorne v. Watkins*, 2 Ves. 35; *Sill v. Worswick*, 1 H. Bl. 690; *Balfour v. Scott*, 6 Bro. P. C. 550; *Bruce v. Bruce*, 2 H. & P. 229, n.; *Hunter v. Potts*, 4 T. R. 182; *Potter v. Brown*, 5 East, 130; *Thornon v. Curling*, 8 Sim. 310; *Price v. Dewhurst*, 8 Sim. 279; and among the more recent cases, *Dogliani v. Crispin*, L. R. 1 H. L. 301; *In the Goods of Weaver*, 36 L. J. P. & M. 41.

(e) *Ante*, p. 253; *Ewing v. Orr-Ewing*, 10 App. Cas. 453, 503; *Ewing v. Orr-Ewing*, 9 App. Cas. (Eng.) 34; *In re Truford*, *Trufford v. Blanton*, Ch. D. 600. See *infra*, p. 269, for the English rule as to general administration.

always or necessarily to the Courts, but always and necessarily to the law of the domicil.”(a)

And where the title has been adjudicated upon by the Courts of the domicil, such adjudication is binding upon, and must be followed by, the Courts of this country.(b)

But so far as the legitimacy of next of kin is concerned, it has been already more than once stated that English law refers the question of legitimacy, both in cases of testacy and intestacy, to the law of the domicil of the next of kin concerned. Thus, in cases under the Statute of Distributions, the legitimacy of a child claiming as next of kin is decided by the law of his domicil—i.e., the law of his father’s domicil at his birth.(c)

And in cases of legitimisation *per subsequens matrimonium*, it has been held that the legitimisation must be recognised, not only by the law of the father’s domicil at the time of birth, but by the law of the father’s domicil at the time of the subsequent marriage.(d)

It follows, from the rule just stated, that the succession duties payable in such cases are calculated on the assumption that the beneficiaries are legitimate by English law if they are legitimate by the law of their own domicil,(e) though in the case cited the question arose under a will, and moreover at that time the law of the testator’s domicil was erroneously regarded as the governing law in such cases. The domicil of the testator and of the legatees happened in *Skottowe v. Young* to be the same. Under the old view of the law applicable to such cases it had been held that the law of the domicil will prevail as to what is sufficient to constitute kinship; so that where the intestate died domiciled in England, leaving debts and *choses in action* recoverable in Scotland, the English rule

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

(a) In *Ewing v. Orr-Ewing*, 10 App. Cas. 453, 502.

(b) Per Stirling, J., in *In re Trustfort*, 36 Ch. D. 600, 611.

(c) *Re Goodman’s Trusts*, 17 Ch. D. 266; overruling *Boyes v. Bedale*, 1 H. & M. 798. See *ante*, pp. 263, 264, and *cf.* Chap. IV.

(d) *Re Grove, Vaucher v. Treasury*, 40 Ch. D. 216.

(e) *Skottowe v. Young*, 11 Eq. 474. See this case commented on in *Goodman’s Trusts*, 17 Ch. D. 266; and *cf.* *Wallace v. Attorney-General*, L. R. 1 Ch. 1, 8.

PART II.
PROPERTY

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

as to kindred by half blood, and not the Scotch, was followed.(a)

The distinction between cases of distribution on intestacy, which are to be governed by the law of the intestate's domicile, and those in which the real question is how far the operation of the *lex situs* on his real property shall prevail, is well seen in two cases cited by Sir W. Grant in *Brodie v. Barry*.(b) In the first the intestate's domicile was English, and it was accordingly held that the next of kin took his personalty by English law, so that the Scotch heir was not obliged to bring the Scotch realty into hotchpot, in order to claim his share, as the Scotch law would have compelled him to do.(c) In the other case, where the domicile was also English, it was held that the personalty was not liable to be called upon to exonerate Scotch real estate from debts to which it alone was liable by Scotch law, although the English law would have imposed such a burden upon English land.(d) Obviously this decision does not touch the claim of the *lex domicilii* to govern all questions that affect the personalty only, and, in accordance with this general principle, it was held in *Hog v. Lashley* (e) that a Scotch testator could not exclude his children from the *legitim* or share in his personalty given to them by the Scotch law, though the property was situate in England. In *Ommaney v. Bingham* (f) it was decided that the law of the testator's domicile determined whether or not a condition in restraint of marriage with a bequest over was void. These two last cases properly come under the head of succession to personal property by will; but the principles regulating the two branches of the subject are almost identical, and they are virtually authorities for the general principle, that the rights and liabilities of those entitled to succeed to the movable personalty of a deceased person

(a) *Thorne v. Watkins*, 2 Ves. Sen. 35.

(b) 2 Ves. & B. 131.

(c) *Balfour v. Scott*, 6 Bro. P. C. 550.

(d) *Drummond v. Drummond*, 6 Bro. P. C. 601.

(e) 6 Bro. P. C. 577; 3 Hagg. Eccl. 415.

(f) 5 Ves. 757; 3 Hagg. Eccl. 414.

are governed by the law of his domicil. The duties of executors and administrators will be considered immediately.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

(c) *Right and Title of the Personal Representative.*—

CAP. VII.

Closely connected with the subject of succession to personal chattels either by will or *ab intestato*, come the principles by which these personal chattels are collected and made available for the purposes of succession, after clearing the estate of the deceased from all burdens and claims. In cases where all the personal chattels of the deceased are in one country, and that country the country of his domicil, no difficulty arises; and the personal representative who is appointed by the domiciliary Court either to execute the will or to administer the estate, as the case may be, takes possession of all the estate of the deceased by the authority of the Court which appointed him, and deals with it in accordance with the law which that Court enforces. But in many cases it happens that the personal estate of the deceased is not situate in the country of his domicil, or not wholly so situate; and it is plain, first, that some other authority than that of the Court of the domicil is necessary to enable any representative of the deceased to take possession of it; and secondly, that there will be in many cases a conflict of law as to the principles by which he should be guided in dealing with it.

Movables—
Succession.

Title of
foreign ex-
ecutor or ad-
ministrator.

The first general principle which can be laid down on the subject is that a foreign grant of probate or letters of administration is intra-territorial only in its operation, and that the title so conferred extends only as of right to personal estate within the jurisdiction of the Government which granted it. (a) Consequently, to entitle the personal representative of a man who has died abroad to take possession of personal estate here, he must prove the will or take out letters of administration here as well as in the country of the domicil. (b) This rule extends to *choses*

Grant of
probate or
administra-
tion—no
extra-terri-
torial effect.

(a) Story, § 512.

(b) *Lee v. Moore*, Palm. 163; *Tourton v. Flower*, 3 P. Wms. 369; *Vauthienen v. Vauthienen*, Fitzgib. 204; *Le Briton v. Le Queene*, 2 Cas. temp. Lee, 261; *Attorney-General v. Bouwens*, 4 M. & W. 193.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Succession.*Foreign repre-
sentative—no
right to sue.

in action, it being an established rule (a) that, in order to sue in any court of this country in respect of the personal rights or property of a deceased person, the plaintiff must appear to have obtained probate or letters of administration in the Court of Probate of this country. But as between the administrator in the *forum* of the domicile, and local or limited administrators elsewhere, it has been held that the former is the person to receive any surplus or balance of the estate in the hands of the limited administrators. (b) Thus, where a company is being wound up in an English court no personal representative of a creditor can establish his debt without an English probate or letters of administration, though the deceased creditor was domiciled abroad. (c) Even a stop-order cannot be obtained without complying with this requisite. (d) But an English grant of probate or administration properly obtained here is by the English Courts regarded as extending to all the personal property of the deceased, wherever situate at the time of his death, (e) at least in such a sense that a representative duly constituted in England may sue in England in relation to foreign assets; and in a case before Sir J. Nicholl, (f) where a domiciled Englishman died in France, leaving two testamentary papers relating to personalty there, and the first of them also to personalty and realty in England, his widow was granted administration with both papers annexed, though a doubt was expressed

(a) Williams on Executors, i. 362; *In re Vallance*, 24 Ch. D. 177; *Attorney-General v. Bouwens*, 4 M. & W. 193; *Tyler v. Bell*, 2 My. & Cr. 89; *Attorney-General v. Cockerell*, 1 Price, 179; *Whyte v. Rose*, 3 Q. B. 507; *Enohin v. Wylie*, 10 H. L. C. 19; *Macmahon v. Rawlings*, 16 Sim. 429; *Carter v. Crofts*, Godb. 33.

(b) *Eames v. Hacon*, 16 Ch. D. 407; S. C. on appeal, 18 Ch. D. 347; *Enohin v. Wylie*, 10 H. L. C. 1; *De la Viesca v. Lubbock*, 10 Sim. 679.

(c) *Partington v. Attorney-General*, L. R. 4 H. L. 100.

(d) *Christian v. Devereux*, 12 Sim. 264. But probate granted by the Supreme Court at Hong Kong, which by imperial statute has all such jurisdiction as for the time being belongs to the Court of Probate in England, has been admitted in an English court: *In re Ttotal's Trusts*, 23 Ch. D. 536.

(e) *Whyte v. Rose*, 3 Q. B. 498, 507; *Scarth v. Bishop of London*, 1 Hagg. Eccl. 625.

(f) *Spratt v. Harris*, 4 Hagg. Eccl. 405, 409.

whether and in what sense such administration extended to the French property. This case was followed by Sir C. Cresswell in *In the Goods of Winter*,^(a) but the true rule on the point, as has been already stated, was laid down in the later cases cited above;^(b) and now it may be taken that a will disposing solely of property situate abroad will not be admitted to probate here unless it is incorporated by reference in another will entitled to probate here as disposing of property within the jurisdiction; though a mere mention in the English will of an intention to ratify and confirm the other will be sufficient. To support a right of action, however, a grant of representation or probate in England is only necessary where the plaintiff is suing *quod* personal representative, in the right of the deceased.^(c) Thus, where a foreign administrator has already obtained a judgment abroad against an English debtor of his intestate, he may prove in England against the estate of that debtor, if since dead, without taking out English administration to his own intestate.^(d) And in granting probate to the executor of a person who has died domiciled abroad, it is the duty of the Court of Probate, in accordance with the comity of nations, to follow the grant (if any) made by the competent Court of the domicile.^(e) In accordance with this principle, it has been the practice, upon the production of an exemplified or certified copy of the probate granted by the proper Court of the domicile, for the English Court to make its own grant of probate to the executor who proved there.^(f) But where the Court

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

Foreign grant
of probate
followed by
English
Court.

(a) 30 L. J. P. & M. 56.

(b) *In the Goods of Lord Howden*, 43 L. J. P. & M. 27; *In the Goods of Coode*, L. R. 1 P. & D. 449; *In the Goods of Harris*, L. R. 2 P. & D. 83; 39 L. J. P. & M. 48; *In the Goods of De la Saussaye*, L. R. 3 P. & D. 43; 42 L. J. P. & M. 47.

(c) *Vanquelin v. Bouard*, 15 C. B. N. S. 341.

(d) *Macnicol v. Macnicol*, L. R. 19 Eq. 81.

(e) *Enohin v. Wylie*, 10 H. L. C. 1, 14; ante, p. 193.

(f) *In the Goods of Clarke*, 36 L. J. P. & M. 72; *Larpent v. Sindry*, 1 Hagg. 382; *In the Goods of Oringan*, 1 Hagg. 549; *In the Goods of Bioboo*, 2 Add. 461; *Viesca v. D'Aramburn*, 2 Curt. 277; *In the Goods of Henderson*, 2 Robert. 144; *In the Goods of Smith*, 2 Robert. 332.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

Foreign grant
of administra-
tion—how far
followed.

of the domicile appears to have decreed probate, not of the original will, but of a translation of it, the English Court will not require production of the original will, but only of an English translation of the document admitted to probate abroad.(a) And the doubt expressed as to the expediency of the practice by Sir J. Nicholl in *Larpent v. Sindry* and *In the Goods of Read* (b) must now be regarded as set at rest by the judgments of Lord Westbury and Lord Cranworth in *Enohin v. Wylie*. So where the Court of the domicile has decreed that the time limited by its law for the execution of the executorship has passed, and that the executor has no more right to intermeddle in the estate of the testator as against the persons beneficially interested, the Court held itself bound by such decree, and refused to grant probate as to English personalty to such executor.(c) Similarly, in granting ancillary administration, the Court will follow a grant already made in the court of the domicile, and in granting original administration will guide itself by the law of that court.(d) And administration with the will annexed has been granted to the attorneys in England for the Administrator-General of a British colony, upon whom by the law of that colony had devolved the representation of a testator there domiciled.(e) But in *In the Goods of Cosmaham* (f) Lord Penzance said that the Court would not follow a foreign grant so as to treat the claimant as executor to the tenor of a will, where he did not appear to it to be entitled to such a grant, but admitted that the foreign grant should be followed so far as to treat the deed as testamentary, and eventually granted the claimant administration with the will annexed under the discre-

(a) *In the Goods of Rule*, 4 P. D. 76.

(b) 1 Hagg. 474.

(c) *Laneville v. Anderson*, 2 Sw. & Tr. 24; see *Crispin v. Doglioni*, 3 Sw. & Tr. 96; S. C. L. R. 3 H. L. 301.

(d) Williams on Executors, i. 430; *Enohin v. Wylie*, 10 H. L. C. 1, and cases cited in note (f), p. 271.

(e) *In the Goods of Black*, 13 P. D. 5.

(f) L. R. 1 P. & D. 183.

tionary power given by 20 & 21 Vict. c. 77, s. 73. In a later case the same judge used language not quite consistent with this decision, saying, "I have before acted on the general principle that where the Court of the country of the domicile of the deceased makes a grant to a party, who then comes to this Court and satisfies it that by the proper authority of his own country he has been authorised to administer the estate of the deceased, I ought, without further consideration, to grant power to that person to administer the English assets."(a)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Succession.*

In the case of *In the Goods of Weaver*,(b) the principle of following a foreign grant of administration was recognised, but the Court refused to extend it so far as to follow a grant made to a nominee of the person entitled, except upon the express consent of the latter, there being nothing to show that the consent given to the appointment of the nominee, as to the goods in the country of the domicile, was intended to apply also to goods situate here. As to the evidence required by the English Court of the will upon which foreign probate has been granted, a translation of the will proved in the foreign court should be adduced; and where the document used in that foreign court was itself a translation from an English original, a re-translation of that translation is the proper document to produce; though it is, of course, open to those seeking English probate to claim it on the ground that the will is valid by the law of the foreign domicile, without reference to the foreign decree, in which case the original English will, or a copy of it, should be used.(c) In the words of Hannen, J., "If this Court is to give credit to a foreign Court for having duly investigated all the facts of a case upon which it founds its decree, it must also assume that it has satisfied itself of the accuracy of the document upon which it proceeds."(d)

(a) *In the Goods of Hill*, L. R. 2 P. & D. 89. See *Preston v. Melville*, 8 Cl. & F. 1.

(b) 36 L. J. P. & M. 41.

(c) *In the Goods of Deshais* and *In the Goods of Vigny*, 4 Sw. & Tr. 15.

(d) *In the Goods of Bule*, Weekly Notes, Feb. 9, 1878, p. 32. See also *In the Goods of Clarke*, 36 L. J. P. & M. 72.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Succession.*

Statutory
provisions
for adminis-
tration by
consuls.

Under 24 & 25 Vict. c. 121, when subjects of foreign States shall die in her Majesty's dominions, and there shall be no person to administer their estates, the consuls of such foreign States shall administer, and shall be entitled to obtain from the proper Court letters of administration of the effects of such deceased person, limited in such manner and for such time as the Court shall think fit. These provisions, however, are only to apply to the subjects of such foreign States as shall be specified by Order in Council, with whom agreement shall have been made by treaty for securing similar rights to British subjects and British consuls within their dominions. Apart from this statute, the law of this country will not, it seems, recognise the right of a foreign consul to take possession of or administer the property of a foreigner dying here, who is domiciled in his own country, even though none of those otherwise entitled object to the grant.^(a)

Foreign ad-
ministrators
—cannot
transfer their
title.

When a grant of administration has been once made, the person who has received it is the person bound to administer the effects of the deceased within the jurisdiction, and it makes no difference that he may have consented to the appointment of another representative in the court of the domicil. Thus, in *Preston v. Melville* ^(b) the persons named as trustees and executors in the will of a domiciled Scotchman having declined to act, his next of kin obtained letters of administration of his personal estate in England from the proper Court there, and afterwards consented to the appointment, by the Court of Session in Scotland, of other persons as trustees and executors in the place of those named in the will, with all the powers that had been thereby given to them. These trustees so appointed raised an action in the Court of Session against the administratrix, calling on her to transfer to them the personal estate possessed

(a) *Aspinwall v. Queen's Proctor*, 2 Curt. 241, 247; *In the Goods of Wyckoff*, 3 Sw. & Tr. 20; *Williams on Executors*, l. 430, n.

(b) 8 Cl. & F. 1.

by her under the administration, and offering her a full release from liability. The House of Lords held that the English administratrix was the proper person to administer the personal estate in England, by virtue of the letters of administration, and that the Scotch Court could give no title to such estate. But if the substituted trustees had been appointed executors in Scotland before the next of kin took out administration in England, and with her consent, there can be little doubt that the English Court would have held them entitled to administration here in preference to her claim as next of kin. Their appointment would then have been sanctioned by the Court of the domicile—the appointment being, of course, the act of the Scotch Court—and the next of kin would have been no longer entitled by the law of the domicile at the time the application was made to the English Court, so that the observations of Lord Cranworth in *Enohin v. Wylie* (a) would apply.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

The grant of administration once having been made, the title of the administrator to all the effects within the jurisdiction becomes complete, and remains though they be carried out of it, unless they come into another jurisdiction as unappropriated assets of the deceased. Thus, where the widow of an intestate in India took out administration of his effects there, and remitted the proceeds of those effects in Government bills to her agent in England, and a creditor of the intestate, having taken out administration in this country, brought an action against that agent to recover such proceeds, it was held that no action would lie.^(b) But in *Hervey v. Fitzpatrick* (c) Lord Hatherley held that where a foreign administrator had remitted assets to England and come himself after them, he might be sued in a court of equity by the next of kin who had taken out English administration, in respect of those assets. The decision, however, was put on the

Title of administrator
—to what
effects it
extends.

(a) 10 H. L. C. 1. See *Eames v. Hacon*, 18 Ch. D. 347.

(b) *Currie v. Birchem*, 1 Dowl. & Ry. 35; *Jauncey v. Seeley*, 1 Vern. 397.

(c) *Kay*, 421.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Succession.*

ground that the foreign administrator had transmitted the assets to England for the purpose of their being carried to the account of the estate of the deceased owner, and the Court refused to order the defendant to pay the proceeds of the assets in question into court. This was in effect the same principle as that adopted by Sir J. Leach in *Logan v. Fairlie*,^(a) who says, "If a testator die in India, and his personal estate be wholly in India, and his executor be resident there, and the will be proved there, and the executor remit to a legatee in England, I am of opinion that the legacy duty is not payable upon such remittance, inasmuch as the whole estate is administered in India, and the remittance is in respect of a demand, which is to be considered as established there. But if a part of the assets of the testator is found in England, *in the hands of the agent of such executor, without any specific appropriation, and a legatee in England institute a suit here for the payment of his legacy out of such unappropriated assets, then such assets are to be considered as administered in England.*" And though the decision of Sir J. Leach in this case as to the liability of such assets to legacy duty was subsequently reversed,^(b) on the authority of *Attorney-General v. Jackson*,^(c) which will be noticed when the rules as to the payment of legacy, succession, and probate duties are discussed, yet the above statement of the law as to specific appropriation of assets by an administrator was quoted with approval by the Court. When, therefore, proceedings are commenced in England as to unappropriated assets within the jurisdiction, administration should be taken out in England, and the administrator made a party to the suit.^(d) So where it did not even appear that the intestate, who died in India, had at the time of his death assets in England, but a bill was brought here for an account of the assets in the hands of his personal representative in India, it was held that administration must

^(a) 2 Sim. & Stu. 284.^(b) *Logan v. Fairlie*, 2 My. & Cr. 59.^(d) Williams on Executors, i. 361.^(c) 2 Cl. & F. 48.

be taken out in England, and the administrator made a party.(a)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

Scotch con-
firmations.

With regard to the effect of Scotch probates or “confirmations,” as they are called, in England, it is enacted by 21 & 22 Vict. c. 56, s. 12, that when any confirmation of the executor of a person who shall in manner aforesaid be found to have died domiciled in Scotland, which includes besides the personal estate situate in Scotland also personal estate situate in England, shall be produced in the principal Court of Probate in England, and a copy thereof deposited with the registrar, together with a certified copy of the interlocutor of the commissary, finding that such deceased person died domiciled in Scotland, such confirmation shall be sealed with the seal of the said Court, and returned to the person producing the same, and shall thereafter have the like force and effect in England as if a probate or letters of administration, as the case may be, had been granted by the said Court of Probate. Under this section, when the seal of the English Court has been affixed, the executor has all the powers of an English executor, and may sell and dispose of English leaseholds, although specifically bequeathed, though a Scotch executor cannot deal with leaseholds in Scotland.(b) And the enactment incorporates with it 48 Geo. 3, c. 149, so that where additional property is discovered in this country after sealing the confirmation, an additional confirmation may be issued in Scotland, and the seal of the English Court affixed to that.(c) But when one confirmation has been sealed in England, the Court will not allow its seal to be further affixed to an “eik” or additional confirmation; and this whether the additional confirmation include a part of the estate omitted from the original one or not.(d) A similar enactment is made as to Irish probates by 20 & 21 Vict. c. 95.

(a) *Tyler v. Bell*, 2 My. & Cr. 89; *Bond v. Graham*, 1 Hare, 482; *Flood v. Patterson*, 29 Beav. 295. (b) *Hood v. Barrington*, L. R. 6 Eq. 218.

(c) *In the Goods of Ryde*, L. R. 2 P. & D. 86. See also on this section *Hawarden v. Dunlop*, 2 Sw. & Tr. 340; *Williams on Executors*, i. 363.

(d) *In the Goods of Hutcheson*, 32 L. J. P. & A. 167; *In the Goods of Gordon*, 2 Sw. & Tr. 622; *In the Goods of Wingate*, *ibid.* 625.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Succession.*Foreign re-
presentative
acting as
executor *de
son tort*.

Though it is thus clear that no man has any right to assume title to the assets of a deceased person, except by virtue of probate or letters of administration taken out in the country where they are situate, yet a question has sometimes arisen as to what is the position of a foreign personal representative who has done so, and how far payments to him by debtors of the deceased are a good discharge to them of their liabilities. Such a person intermeddling with English assets would, it is clear, be regarded as executor *de son tort*, the commonly accepted definition of such an executor being "he who takes upon himself the office of executor by intrusion, not being so constituted by the deceased, nor, for want of such constitution, substituted by the Court to administer;"^(a) and as such an executor has all the liabilities, though none of the privileges, that belong to the character of executor,^(b) it is clear that he would be liable to actions in the country where the assets were found situate, as the representative of the deceased, at least, as far as the amount of those assets. Unless a foreign personal representative has received English assets, so as to make himself liable in England on this principle, or has taken out administration here, he is of course not liable to be sued, *quâ* representative, in English courts, however unlimited his foreign liability may be.^(c) But whatever liability might attach to such an executor *de son tort*, would his receipt be a good discharge to debtors of the deceased's estate, so as to protect them from any further demand of the same debt at the hands of a representative properly constituted? It was laid down in *Coulter's Case* ^(d) that "all lawful acts which an executor *de son tort* doth are good;" and it has been held that alienations of the goods of the deceased by such an executor are indefeasible.^(e) These authorities, however, by no means

(a) *Godolphin*, pt. 2, c. 8, s. 1; *Wentworth*, Ex. c. 14, p. 320 (ed. 14); *Swinburne*, 4, 23, i.

(b) Per Lord Cottenham in *Carmichael v. Carmichael*, 2 Phill. 101.

(c) *Beavan v. Lord Hastings*, 2 K. & J. 724.

(d) 5 Co. 30 b.
(e) *Greysbrook v. Fox*, Plowd. 282; *Parker v. Kett*, 1 Raym. 661; S. C. 12 Mod. 471.

go so far as to sanction the collection of assets by such an executor, or to protect those who have made payments to him without satisfying themselves that he has authority to give them a discharge. Story inclines to the opinion that such discharge would be invalid, on the ground that receiving debts amounts to a collection of assets, which no man is empowered to do except by a grant of probate or administration in the country where he finds them.(a) It is clear that a foreign personal representative would have no advantage in this respect over a common executor *de son tort*.(b)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

According to the old case of *Daniel v. Lucre*,(c) a Release by foreign representative. given by an Irish administrator to the Irish obligee of a bond made in England, and afterwards taken possession of in England by the English administratrix, the intestate having died there, was held to be no answer to an action on the bond in England by the English administratrix, on the express ground that bonds are *bona notabilia* in the diocese where they are found at the time of death.(d) It is difficult to regard the *situs* of such a bond as the real locality of the assets represented by it, in preference to the country where the debtor must be sued, and in *Whyte v. Rose*,(e) where the circumstances of *Daniel v. Lucre* were reversed, it was held that a grant of administration in the foreign country where the bond was situate was not necessary to entitle an English administrator to sue in England, the debtor having come within the jurisdiction of the English Court. There can be no doubt that if a release had been given by a person who had obtained administration in the foreign country where the bond was *bonum notabile* at the time of the death, that release would have been a good answer to a subsequent action by any administrator in any other

(a) Story, § 514; *Preston v. Melville*, 8 Cl. & F. 1, 12; *Attorney-General v. Brouens*, 4 M. & W. 71.

(b) *Partington v. Attorney-General*, L. R. 4 H. L. 100.

(c) Dyer, 303; Dal. 76.

(d) *Troubridge v. Taylor*, temp. Jac. I., cited Dyer, 305; 11 Vin. Ab. 79; 1 Rol. Ab. 909.

(e) 3 Q. B. 493.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Succession.*

Obligation of
representative
to account—
for what
assets.

country, whether that of the domicile or not; (a) but there is no English authority to show that where a debtor to the estate of the deceased has paid a personal representative who could not have enforced the claim against him by suit, he can in any case protect himself by such a discharge of his liability.

Though it thus follows that no personal representative has a right to collect assets or give discharges for debts in any country other than that where his grant was obtained, yet where he does so, and brings them home within the jurisdiction of the Court from which his grant proceeded, it would seem that he is liable to account to it for the administration of those assets, just as if they had been received and collected within the limits of his authority. (b) Though this doctrine is mentioned with some disapprobation by Story, it would appear to follow, from the view of the English Courts, mentioned above, that a grant of probate or administration properly obtained here extends to all the personal property of the deceased, wherever situate at the time of his death, at least in such a sense as to entitle an English representative to sue in relation to foreign assets. (c)

Probate and
administra-
tion duties,

(d) *Probate and Administration Duties.*—The personal representative of the deceased being therefore compellable to clothe himself with the authority of the English Courts, in order to reduce into possession assets locally situate in England, as has been explained, comes under the English Acts which regulate the probate and administration duties, to which the English assets are liable without reference to the domicile of the testator or intestate. The amount of this duty is to be regulated, not by the value of all the assets which an executor or administrator may ultimately administer under the will or letters of administration, but by the value of such part

on what effects
they attach.

(a) *Shaw v. Sturton*, 2 Lev. 86; 3 Keb. 163; *Huthcote v. Phaire*, 1 M. & Gr. 159.

(b) *Donadale's Case*, 6 Co. 47; Story, § 514, a.

(c) *Whyte v. Rose*, 3 Q. B. 507; *Scarth v. Bishop of London*, 1 Hagg. Eccl. 625.

as are at the death of the deceased within the jurisdiction of the Court by which the probate or letters of administration are granted. (a) It is an expense of collection, which is to be borne by the assets collected in the country where it is charged, not rateably by the whole personal estate, or general legatees. (b) Moreover, it attaches on *bona notabilia* in the place where the goods happen to be situate, wholly irrespective of the question of the domicile of the testator, (c) the test being whether the goods in question are effects which, under the old law, the Ordinary would have had to administer in case of intestacy. (d) Thus, probate duty is not payable in respect of French *rentes*, which were sold out and whose proceeds were transmitted to the executor in London of a domiciled Englishman after his death. (e) The same principle was confirmed by the House of Lords in respect of American stock in the case of *Attorney-General v. Hope*, (f) the stock being in both cases regarded as locally situate only in the place where it is transferable. And it was similarly held that probate duty was not payable in respect of notes or securities given by the East India Company, payable in India, although the testator had agreed before his death that the notes in question should be converted into stock, registered and transferable in England, and this was in fact done shortly after his death. (g) So, where the testator was domiciled in England, it was held that probate duty was due and payable in Scotland under statute 48 Geo. III. c. 149, s. 38, in respect of shares in certain companies in Scotland, constituted under the Companies' Clauses Consolidation Act (Scotland), 1845. But the local

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.Local situa-
tion of effects
at death.

(a) Williams on Executors, i. 617; *Raymond v. Von Watteville*, 2 Cas. temp. Lee, 551.

(b) *Peter v. Stirling*, 10 Ch. D. 279.

(c) *Fernandes' Executor's Case*, L. R. 5 Ch. 314; *Thomson v. Advocates-General*, 12 Cl. & F. 1.

(d) *Attorney-General v. Bouvens*, 4 M. & W. 171.

(e) *Attorney-General v. Dimond*, 1 Cr. & J. 356; S. C. 1 Tyr. 243.

(f) 1 C. M. & R. 530; 2 Cl. & F. 84.

(g) *Pearse v. Pearse*, 9 Sim. 430.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Succession.*Local situa-
tion of effects
at death.

situation of transferable securities, which pass from hand to hand, is that in which they are found, and not the place where the principal or interest due on them is to be paid; and probate duty is therefore payable in respect of such "bonds" of foreign Governments as come within the above description, and are in England at the time of the death of the owner, being in effect saleable chattels.^(a) And where the testator, who died in India, had directed his bankers there to realise certain securities, and to transmit the proceeds to his bankers in England, and the securities had been converted into bills of exchange, drawn upon a London bank, payable six months after sight, which were actually on their way to England when the testator died, it was held that probate duty was payable here in respect of the proceeds.^(b) The judgment of the majority of the Court in that case went on the ground that the debts or assets to which the bills of exchange were evidences of the title, or the credit which they represented, were locally situate in England; but Kelly, C.B., was of opinion that the bills themselves were personal chattels, and that the fact that they were upon the high seas at the time of the testator's death did not exempt them from the liability to duty. This latter view was in some measure supported by *In the Goods of Wyckoff*,^(c) where administration was granted by the English Court of Probate of assets, including unaccepted bills of exchange, belonging to, and in the possession of, the deceased, an American citizen, who died on board a British ship, on the high seas, bound for this country. On the principle of *Attorney-General v. Bouwens*, probate duty is payable on the value of all British ships, or shares in British ships, wherever they may be,^(d) for they are capable of being dealt with in this country by a bill of sale, and also upon the value of

^(a) *Attorney-General v. Bouwens*, 4 M. & W. 171.^(b) *Attorney-General v. Pratt*, L. R. 9 Ex. 140; see as to Indian Government notes, &c., 23 Vict. c. 5.^(c) 3 Sw. & Tr. 20.^(d) By 27 & 28 Vict. c. 56, s. 4.

any cargoes in ships which are capable of being dealt with here by means of the bill of lading.^(a) And with regard to specialty *choses in action*, it is enacted by 25 & 26 Vict. c. 22, s. 39, that "for the purposes of the stamp duties on probates of wills and letters of administration, debts and sums of money due and owing from persons in the United Kingdom to any deceased person at the time of his death on obligation or other specialty, shall be estate and effects of the deceased within the jurisdiction of her Majesty's Court of Probate in England or Ireland, as the case may be, in which the same would be if they were debts owing to the deceased upon simple contract, without regard to the place where the obligation or specialty shall be at the time of the death of the deceased." Where the law of the country where the personal estate is situated requires a double administration to be taken out, in order to reduce it into possession, it was held by the House of Lords that double duty is payable, notwithstanding the fact that the person beneficially entitled and the parties through whom he claimed had always been domiciled abroad. In that case ^(b) there was personal estate here of S., who died intestate domiciled in England. The sole next of kin was a married woman domiciled in the United States, who died without having administered or done anything to reduce her rights into possession. Her husband retained his American domicil, and died without having taken out administration to his wife. According to our law, apart from considerations of domicil, the child of these parents would be compelled to take out two administrations, one to his father, the other to his mother, on each of which administration duty would be payable; and it was decided that this law was applicable to the circumstances stated, notwithstanding the fact that, by the law of the United States, the claimant might have been entitled to represent his mother (the next of kin to the original intestate)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Succession.*Double ad-
ministration
duty imposed
by the *lex
situs*.^(a) Hanson on Probate and Succession Duty, pp. 7, 160.^(b) *Partington v. Attorney-General*, L. R. 4 H. L. 100.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Succession.*

directly; though Lord Westbury differed from the other law lords on this point. It was pointed out that if the claimant had constituted himself the personal representative of his mother in America by taking out letters of administration there, where she was domiciled, he could have come to the English Court for ancillary letters of administration of her estate here, in which case the claim of the Crown to double duty would have been evaded. As a matter of fact, he came before the English Court as the personal representative in America of his father, having taken out administration to his estate there, but that did not help him; it being still necessary for him to constitute himself his father's representative here (whether by ancillary administration or otherwise), and then take out administration to his mother in that character.

Succession
and legacy
duties—de-
pendent on
the domicil
of deceased.

(e) *Succession and Legacy Duty*.—It has thus been shown that for the purpose of probate or administration duty, which is a tax imposed by the Government within whose dominion the property lies, upon its collection into the hands of the personal representative, the local situation of the property is alone taken into consideration. For the purpose, however, of legacy or succession duty, which is a tax upon the transmission of property, the actual situation of the subject-matter is disregarded, and the maxim "*mobilia sequuntur personam*" strictly adhered to. Until the case of *Thomson v. Advocate-General*,^(a) the question was not free from doubt, and the older cases^(b) are not all inconsistent with a tendency to refer the decision to the situation of the property at the time of its actual appropriation to the purposes of the testator's will. That decision of the House of Lords, however, put the matter at rest, and it is now clearly established that legacy duty is payable only to the Government of the testator's domicil, without reference to the actual locality of the property at

(a) 12 Cl. & F. 1; *Cockrell v. Cockrell*, 25 L. J. Ch. 730.

(b) *Attorney-General v. Cockerell*, 1 Price, 165; *Attorney-General v. Beaton*, 7 Price, 560; *Logan v. Fairlie*, 1 My. & Cr. 59; *Attorney-General v. Forbes*, 2 Cl. & F. 48; *Arnold v. Arnold*, 2 My. & Cr. 256.

PART II.
PROPERTY.
CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

the time of his death. The same principle was established as to succession duty in the event of intestacy by the case of *Wallace v. Attorney-General*.^(a) According to Parke, B., in *Attorney-General v. Napier*,^(b) the correct doctrine was first broached in *In re Ewin*,^(c) and rests upon the general principle, that for ordinary purposes personal property is to be considered as situate in the place where the owner of it is domiciled at the time of his death, the previous decisions inconsistent with this view having been decided without adverting to the important distinction between domicile and residence. Where a person dies abroad, the *onus* of proof appears to be on the Crown to show that his domicile was English, the presumption of law being against that view; and unless this burden of proof is successfully maintained, the Crown will not be entitled to legacy duty.^(d) In the case, however, of *In re Capdevielle* ^(e) it had been held that though legacy duty was payable only to the Government of the testator's domicile, yet succession duty was payable to the Crown under the will of a testator who died in England while still domiciled in France, in respect of personal property situate in this country at the time of his death. The Court of Exchequer, in the case cited, were apparently of opinion that they were bound by the decisions in *In re Lovelace* ^(f) and *In re Wallop's Trusts*,^(g) which were, however, cases of testamentary appointments under English instruments, to be governed, as will be shown below, by different considerations. The decision of the Court of Exchequer in *In re Capdevielle* must therefore be regarded as overruled by the Court of Chancery Appeal in *Wallace v. Attorney-General*.^(h) The rule laid down by Lord Cranworth in *Wallace v. Attorney-General* is strictly confined in its operation to personal chattels, and the duty is not due upon a legacy or annuity charged on

Assessed on
foreign mov-
ables only.

(a) L. R. 1 Ch. 1.

(b) 6 Ex. 220.

(c) 1 Cr. & J. 151.

(d) *President of United States v. Drummond*, 33 L. J. Ch. 501; *Anderson v. Laneville*, 9 Moo. P. C. 325.

(e) 33 L. J. Ex. 306.

(g) 1 De G. & S. 656.

(f) 4 De G. & J. 340.

(h) L. R. 1 Ch. 1.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

Movables
appointed
under powers,
by donee
domiciled
abroad, may
be liable to
duty.

foreign land,^(a) or upon the proceeds of such land directed to be converted, nor upon chattels real abroad. But chattels real in this country come of course under the operation of the English Legacy and Succession Duty Acts, without regard to the domicile of the owner. And it has been suggested ^(b) that in the case of a British subject dying domiciled abroad, and leaving a will of personal property situate here had according to the law of his domicile, but good under English law by virtue of 24 & 25 Vict. c. 114,^(c) the property should be liable to legacy duty here, inasmuch as the title of the person to whom it is given depends wholly on the law of this country.

With regard to personal property not devised by a testator domiciled abroad, but appointed under a general power, duty is payable under the Succession Duty Acts, such property not being regarded as the property of the donee of the power, so as to be exempt from succession duty by the fact of his foreign domicile.^(d) In that case the property had been settled by an English marriage settlement, and if the power of appointment had not been exercised, would have devolved to the next of kin by the terms of the settlement, without forming part of the estate of the deceased at all. A similar question arose shortly afterwards, in the case of *In re Wallop's Trusts*,^(e) where an English testator by will settled personal estate in the hands of trustees, giving the enjoyment of the income and a power of appointment by deed or will to his daughter, and appointing certain further trusts in default of appointment. The daughter having exercised the power of appointment by will, died domiciled abroad, and it was held that the legacies so given were liable to succession duty, following the previous decision, under s. 2 of the

(a) *Attorney-General v. Napier*, 6 Ex. 620.

(b) *Hanson on Succession Duty*, p. 223.

(c) S. 1 enacts that wills and testamentary instruments made out of the United Kingdom by British subjects, wherever domiciled at the time of making the will or of death, shall be valid if made as required either by the law of the place where made, of the place of the testator's domicile at the time of making, or of the country where he had his domicile of origin.

(d) *In re Lovelace*, 4 De G. & J. 340.

(e) 1 De G. & S. 656.

Succession Duty Act (16 & 17 Vict. c. 51). The chief distinction between this case and that of *In re Lovelace*, just cited, was that in *In re Wallop's Trusts* the death of the testator as well as that of the donor of the power had taken place after the coming into operation of the Succession Duty Act, s. 4 of which provides that where any person shall have a general power of appointment, under any disposition of property taking effect upon the death of any person dying after the time appointed for the commencement of the Act, over property, he shall, in the event of his making any appointment thereunder, be deemed to be entitled, at the time of his exercising such power, to the property or interest thereby appointed as a succession from the donor of the power; and that where any person shall have a limited power of appointment, under a disposition taking effect upon any such death, over property, any person taking any property by the exercise of such power shall be deemed to take the same as a succession derived from the person creating the power as a predecessor. It was expressly pointed out by Lord Cranworth, in *Wallace v. Attorney-General*,^(a) that neither of the two cases last cited was to be considered as affected by that decision of the House of Lords. They were both cases of testamentary appointment under English instruments, not of wills; and such instruments were necessarily to be construed by English law, not by the law of the domicile of the person executing the power.

But where a testator dies domiciled abroad, having by will created an English trust of personal estate, such that one or more successions will arise under it at a subsequent period or periods, the persons beneficially entitled to such successions will be liable to pay succession duty on the amounts taken by them, notwithstanding the foreign domicile of the testator.^(b) Malins, V.C., in deciding this case, conceived himself to be bound by the decisions of *In re Capdevielle* ^(c)—which has, however, been shown to

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

Successions
arising out of
English trust
created by
foreign will.

^(a) L. R. 1 Ch. 1.

^(b) *In re Badart's Trusts*, L. R. 10 Eq. 233.

^(c) 2 H. & C. 935.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Succession.*Settled fund
in England.

be distinguishable—and *In re Smith's Trusts*,^(a) where Stuart, V.C., had held that succession duty was payable under similar circumstances. The opinion of Malins, V.C., has since been confirmed by the House of Lords in the case of *Attorney-General v. Campbell*.^(b) In that case, the testator, who was domiciled in Portugal, made a will in this country, while on a visit to it, in English form, appointing English executors, and desiring that his property should be invested in English consols. An annuity was to be paid to a sister of the testator during her life, and at her death the part of his personal estate which had been set aside for this purpose was to be divided amongst his three children. The ground upon which succession duty was payable upon this division taking place was clearly put by Lord Hatherley. "In order to have the personal property administered you must seek the *forum* of that country where the person whose property is in question had acquired a domicil. Then, when you obtain possession of that property, you do all that has to be done in the country to which the testator belonged. The question is afterwards, when the property has been so obtained and administered, in what condition do you find the fund? You find it in the condition of a settled fund. That condition arises, no doubt, from the operation of the testator's will; but I can see no difference in consequence of that circumstance from its having arisen in any other manner, as, for instance, from a deed executed in his lifetime, as might have been the case, or supposing he had transmitted to his bankers a sum of money to be invested upon the same trusts. When there is any fund standing in this country in the names of trustees in consols or other property which has a *quasi* local settlement—as stock in the funds has—all the dividends having to be received in this country, and the persons who have to be dealt with in respect of it being persons residing in this country, that fund is liable to succession duty. The settlement provides for the succession, and the interest of each person on

^(a) 12 W. R. 933.^(b) L. R. 5 H. L. 524.

coming into possession is liable to the payment of duty upon that interest to which he so succeeds. . . . In the cases of *Thomson v. Advocate-General*(a) and *Wallace v. Attorney-General* (b) the Court had to deal with a fund which was to be administered, and which was in the course of administration, before the executor, or the person on whom the duty of administering it was imposed, had cleared himself and discharged himself of that duty. In those cases, he being a foreigner (c) (we must take him to be a foreigner, because the original owner of the property was a foreigner), you have nothing to do with the reception of the duty levied by Acts of Parliament on the person whom you are pursuing before a foreign tribunal. But when the duties which have been imposed upon him involve the placing of the money here, in funds within the functions of the judicature of this country, and when you find those funds in a state involving succession from one individual to another, then the duty has accrued, and you proceed to levy it.”(d) Lord Westbury put his decision in the same case even more clearly upon the fact of the fund being *found* settled in England, without reference to the direction given by the testator’s will. “You cannot apply an English Act of Parliament to foreign property whilst it remains foreign property; but after the purposes of administration have been answered, and distribution made, if a person taking a distributive part comes to this country and invests it upon trusts, it assumes the character of a British settlement and British property.” In accordance with this principle, it is pointed out by Mr. Hanson (on Legacy and Succession Duty, p. 226) that it is not necessary that the testator should have directed such an investment, but that the liability to duty equally attaches where the trustees have power to invest the property here or abroad at their discretion, or where it is already actually invested in this

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

(a) 12 Cl. & F. 1.

(b) L. R. 1 Ch. 1.

(c) *Foreigner, i.e., in respect of domicil.*

(d) L. R. 5 H. L. 528.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Succession.*

Personal
estate directed
to be settled
in England.

Movables
vested in
English
trustees—
constructively
in England.

country; and he cites a case decided by Bacon, V.C.,^(a) where the rule was applied to the proceeds of American securities remitted to English trustees, and paid by them into court in an action brought on behalf of the infant *cestui que trust*. And where the settlement was not by will, but by deed taking effect *inter vivos*, the property affected being locally situate in England, and consisting of an English policy of assurance and English consols, the person ultimately entitled under the settlement was held liable to the payment of succession duty on the amount received by him.^(b) In the same case the real principle was shown by the refusal of Lord Romilly to attach such a liability to the rest of the personal estate settled by will on similar trusts, with a direction that it should be invested in English funds or lands, the whole of such residuary personal estate being locally situate abroad at the time of the testator's death, and none of the proceeds of it having been remitted to England at the time of the succession of the person who was ultimately entitled under both instruments.

Nevertheless, it is not necessary, according to a decision of Sir G. Jessel's,^(c) that the funds should have been actually brought into England, if they are vested in English trustees, so that the *forum* to decide the ownership must be English. In that case a settlement made in England on the marriage of an Italian and an English-woman vested certain French *rentes* and shares in the Bank of France in English trustees. On the death of the husband and wife, the children of the marriage, who were domiciled Italians, became beneficially entitled to the trust funds, and the Commissioners of Inland Revenue claimed succession duty from the trustees. The trustees paid a sum sufficient to meet the duty into court under the Trustee Relief Act, and, on the petition of the children to pay it out to them, it was held that the trust funds were

(a) *Thompson v. Birch*, Bacon, V.C., May 20, 1876.

(b) *Lyall v. Lyall*, L. R. 15 Eq. 1.

(c) *Re Cigala's Trusts*, L. R. 7 Ch. D. 351.

not, under the circumstances, exempt from succession duty. It is difficult to see how this decision can be supported, except on the principle that the funds were constructively in England, because it would have been necessary to have recourse to an English Court to obtain payment from the trustees; and if the trustees, even continuing their English domicile, had gone to France, and had there either voluntarily or under the direction of the French law realised and paid over the whole trust funds without reserving anything to satisfy the English duty, it does not seem clear that they could have been made liable here on their return. That the fact of the foreign domicile of the person beneficially entitled is immaterial, if the trust funds are in England, had already been really decided by the case of *Attorney-General v. Campbell*,^(a) but considerable weight was attached by Jessel, M.R., in *Re Cigala's Trusts*, to the fact that the settlement under which the trustees took was made in England, by an Englishwoman, according to the forms of the English law.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

Notwithstanding the general principle that the law of the owner's domicile is applicable to personalty generally, it is obvious that when the conflict is on the question as to what is personal estate, liable as such to duty, the *lex situs*, being that which alone has power to enforce its judgment, must prevail. In the case of *Chatfield v. Berchtoldt* ^(b) the question was whether a rent-charge *pur autre vie* issuing out of English land was liable to legacy duty as personal estate under the English statutes (14 Geo. II. c. 20, s. 9, and 1 Vict. c. 26) which make estates *pur autre vie* applicable as personal estate in the hands of executors and administrators; and it was held, on appeal, that legacy duty was payable, although the domicile of the deceased was Hungarian, and in opposition to the contention that the character of personal property was so impressed by the English statutes upon the interest in question as to exempt it from liability to legacy duty according to the principle of *Thomson v. Advocate-Gen-*

Chattels real, though personalty, are not movables.

(a) L. R. 5 H. L. 524.

(b) L. R. 7 Eq. 192.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

ral.(a) The decision was given on the ground that the English law only made it personal property for the purpose of charging it with duty, and that it remained, except for this purpose, English realty governed by English law. Had it been the law of the testator's domicile that assumed to declare English realty to be personal estate, the case would have been too clear for argument; but in the actual circumstances the *lex situs* was given much stronger effect, being allowed to change the nature of realty into personalty for its own purposes, without exposing it as such to the law of the foreign domicile. The decision, however, was clearly right on another ground, which has already been discussed.(b) What the English law calls personal estate is not co-extensive with the class of "immovables" according to international law, including as it does chattels real, to which the maxim "*mobilia sequuntur personam*" does not apply. Chattels real, which are regarded as personal property for many purposes by English law, are not thereby rendered *movables*, and it is to movables, and movables alone, that the maxim is admitted to extend.(c)

Rate of duty
—domicil of
successor.

When there is any doubt as to the rate at which legacy or succession duty is to be assessed upon the amounts transmitted, the *status* of the recipients and their relation to the deceased must be decided according to the law of their domicile. Thus, in *Skottowe v. Young*,(d) the proceeds of land in England, devised by a British subject domiciled in France on trust to sell and pay the proceeds to his daughters born of a French mother before marriage, but afterwards legitimated according to French law, were held liable to legacy duty at the rate of £1 per cent. only, instead of the higher rate imposed by the Legacy Duty Acts upon gifts by a testator to strangers in blood. This decision must now be regarded as an application of the general rule that the legitimacy of a child depends upon its domiciliary law; *i.e.*, the law of the father's domicile

(a) 12 Cl. & F. 1.

(b) *Supra*, p. 224.(c) *Freke v. Lord Carbery*, L. R. 16 Eq. 461, 466; *Jarman on Wills*, i. p. 4, n.

(d) L. R. 11 Eq. 474.

at the time of the birth.(a) In the case of *Boyes v. Bedale*, where the domicile of the testator was English, a daughter born and legitimated under similar circumstances was held not to come within the description of "children" of her father, though he had acquired a French domicile; but this decision can no longer be regarded as law.(b)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

(f) *Distribution of Movable Personal Estate by Executors and Administrators.*—The principles by which the administration of personal estate is governed having thus been considered with regard to the appointment and title of the personal representative, and the duties payable to the Governments by whose authority or permission he acts, it remains to discuss the rules by which he is to be guided in satisfying such claims as may be put forward to the personal estate in his hands. Under this head of the subject come all questions which relate to the priority of debts, the marshalling of assets, and the mode of proof against the estate, if it should be insolvent. It is needless to recapitulate the numerous authorities which have already been cited (c) to establish the general rule that the distribution of personal estate is governed by the law of the domicile. And it is the duty of local or limited administrators to remit or pay over to the administrator in the *forum* of the domicile any surplus or balance in their hands of the personal estate got in by them.(d) But with regard to the question of the priority of debts, with regard, that is, to its distribution as affects creditors, as distinguished from persons beneficially interested, an important doubt has been introduced. In a case where the deceased was domiciled abroad, and ancillary administration is taken out to his effects here, is such local administrator to be governed by the laws of this country or of that of the domicile of the deceased, in paying creditors who make their claim upon him in this country? and is

Distribution
of movables
by personal
representa-
tive.

(a) *Vide supra*, p. 263; and *Re Goodman's Trusts*, 17 Ch. D. 266.

(b) *Boyes v. Bedale*, 1 H. & M. 798; overruled by *Re Goodman's Trusts*, *supra*.

(c) Pages 253, *seq.*

(d) *Eames v. Hacon*, 16 Ch. D. 407; S. C. 18 Ch. D. 347; *Enohin v. Wylie*, 10 H. L. C. 1; *De la Viesca v. Lubbock*, 10 Sim. 629.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

there any difference as to this between debts originally contracted here, and those contracted in the country of the domicile? Westlake and Story (a) lay down positively that the law of the country from which the ancillary representative obtained his grant is to be followed, on the ground that he is accountable to that jurisdiction alone. This position, however, involves the assumption that the law of that jurisdiction does not adopt the law of the domicile of the deceased for such purposes, as it undoubtedly does for the general distribution of personal effects, and appears inconsistent with the *dictum* of Abbott, C.J., in *Doe v. Vardill*, (b) that it is part of the law of England that personal property should be distributed according to the *jus domicilii*. It is, however, now settled that, in the administration of the English estate of a deceased domiciled abroad, foreign creditors of the same class are entitled to dividends *pari passu* with English creditors, (c) and it is said in the case cited, by Pearson, J., that the *lex fori* must prevail, both as to the collection of assets, and as to the administration of those assets when collected. Prior to this decision the cases appear to have been conflicting, and the decision of Sir J. Romilly, M.R., in *Wilson v. Dunsany* (d) is especially disapproved of by the learned judge. In *Cook v. Gregson* (e) all that was decided was that an Irish judgment debtor of a testator domiciled in Ireland was entitled in England to priority, according to Irish law, in respect of assets which had been brought from Ireland to England. In the later case of *Pardoe v. Bingham* (f) an Englishman residing in Venezuela executed an instrument there to secure repayment to a creditor of a sum of money, and the creditor, having registered the instrument in the form prescribed by the law of Venezuela, became entitled, by that law, to be paid his debt out of the

(a) Westlake, *Priv. Int. Law*, § 307; Story, § 524. (b) 5 B. & C. 452.(c) *In re Klæbe, Kannreither v. Geivelbrecht*, 28 Ch. D. 175, 180.

(d) 18 Beav. 293.

(e) 2 Drew. 286. Cf. *Blackwood v. The Queen*, 2 App. Cas. 92; *Enohin v. Wylie*, 10 H. L. C. 1; *Simpson v. Fogo*, 1 H. & M. 195. In *Hanson v. Walker*, 7 L. J. Ch. 135, the *lex situs* as affecting immovables was involved.

(f) L. R. 6 Eq. 485.

general assets of the debtor in priority to other creditors. The debtor died in Venezuela, but it did not appear whether or not he had been domiciled there, and all that was decided was that the provisions of the *lex loci contractus* would not entitle a creditor to a priority not given by the law of the country where the assets were situate. It was suggested in the course of the argument that the deceased was probably domiciled in Venezuela, and that the Venezuelan law was entitled to be heard on that ground, but Lord Romilly refused to direct an inquiry as to this without a special application for that purpose, and gave no opinion as to the probable effect of such a fact, if it had been ascertained to exist. There does not, therefore, appear to be any authority for saying that a priority given by the law of the domicil of a testator or intestate will be disregarded. The argument in *In re Klæbe* (a) which Pearson, J., rejected, was not an argument in favour of rights or priorities given by the *lex domicilii*, but the barefaced proposition that "foreign creditors have no right to prove or get payment in this country at all." The answer of the Court was that the English law, as the *lex fori*, gives such a right to all creditors, "equally with other creditors in the same class." How the question of class is to be determined is therefore (it is submitted) still left open; but there is no doubt that the tendency of the judgment in *In re Klæbe* is to refer to the *lex fori* all questions of the priority of creditors, as touching matters of *procedure*, a principle asserted in general terms by jurists, (b) and recognised in English courts as to distribution of assets under bankruptcy.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Movables—
Succession.*Priorities—
belong to
procedure.

In *Ex parte Melbourn* (c) a marriage contract settling personal estate on the wife had not been registered as required by the law of Batavia, where it was executed, and consequently was of no effect there as against third parties.

(a) 28 Ch. D. 175.

(b) *De la Vega v. Vianna*, 1 B. & Ad. 284; Story, § 323; Westlake, § 411, 277; Huber, tom. 2, lib. 1, c. 3.(c) L. R. 6 Ch. 64; see, for the converse case, *Thurburn v. Steward*, L. R. 3 P. C. 478.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Movables—
Succession.

The husband having subsequently become bankrupt in England, his wife claimed to prove against his estate for the sum settled, and her proof was admitted, on the general ground that the question of priority of creditors *inter se* must be governed by the law of the country where the bankruptcy takes place, and where the assets of the debtor are being administered. In such a case the assets are of course regarded as being locally situate there, following the person of the bankrupt. The principle is perhaps best expressed in the words of Tenterden, C.J. : "A person suing in this country must take the law as he finds it ; he cannot, by virtue of any regulation in his own country, enjoy greater advantages than other suitors here, and he ought not therefore to be deprived of any superior advantage which the law of this country may confer."(a)

SUMMARY.

(iii.) SUCCESSION TO MOVABLE PERSONAL PROPERTY.

(a) *Disposition of Movable Personal Property by Will.*

p. 252.

The law of the testator's domicile at the time of his death has supreme authority in all matters connected with the capacity of the testator, the formalities, execution, interpretation, construction, and effect of a will of movable personal property.

p. 253.

But the Court of the domicile of the testator has not supreme jurisdiction ; so that where probate or administration is applied for in England, the English Court will make a general decree as to all the assets, wherever situate, on the principle that the executors or administrators are personally subject to its jurisdiction, and should be controlled by it.

p. 254.

And when the right of succession is once ascertained, the rights resulting therefrom follow the person of the living successor, not of the dead testator.

(a) *De la Vega v. Vianna*, 1 B. & Ad. 284, 288.

The legitimacy and *status* of the successor similarly depend upon the law of his domicile, not upon the law of the domicile of the testator (pp. 262, 263).

PART II.
PROPERTY.
CAP. VII.

But, under Lord Kingsdown's Act (24 & 25 Vict. c. 114), the wills of British subjects, whatever the domicile at the time of the death or of making, if made out of the United Kingdom, are also valid if the forms required either by the law of the place of making, the law of the domicile at the time of making, or the law of the domicile of origin have been complied with; and if made *within* the United Kingdom, are also valid if the forms required by the law of the place of making at the time of the making have been complied with. And by the same statute, no will, at least of a British subject, is revoked or becomes invalid by a change of domicile between the times of making and of the death.

p. 255.

But a power of appointment by will to movable personalty, given under English law, will be validly exercised by a will made in conformity with English law, though not with the law of the domicile of the deceased at the time of his death. Such a will will be admitted to probate accordingly; though it seems that a will executed in compliance with the law of the domicile would be equally entitled to recognition.

p. 259.

p. 261.

To entitle a will or other testamentary paper to English probate, it must dispose of some personal property situate in England, or else be incorporated by express or implied reference to another will or testamentary paper entitled to probate on its own account.

pp. 264, 271.

In granting probate of the will of a testator domiciled in England, the English Court will, as a rule, follow the grant of the Court of the domicile, and grant probate or administration with the will annexed to the person who has been duly clothed by the Court of the domicile with the power and duty of administering the estate.

pp. 265, 271,
273.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

(b) *Succession to Movable Personal Property by Operation of Law.*

- p. 266. The law of the domicil of an intestate at the time of his death has supreme authority in all matters connected with the succession to, and distribution of, his personal estate.
- pp. 266, 267. But the Court of the domicil of the intestate has not supreme jurisdiction; so that, when administration is applied for in England, the English Court will make a general decree as to all the assets, wherever situate, on the principle that the administrators are personally subject to its jurisdiction.
- p. 254. When the right of succession is once ascertained, the rights resulting therefrom follow the person of the living successor, not of the dead testator.
- pp. 262, 267. The legitimacy and *status* of the successor similarly depend upon the law of his domicil, not upon the law of the domicil of the intestate.

(c) *Right and Title of the Personal Representative.*

- p. 269. A grant of probate or letters of administration has no extra-territorial operation; and the personal representative under it acquires only a title to the personal chattels of the deceased within the jurisdiction of the Court which made the grant.
- pp. 269-271. To take possession of personalty in England, or sue for debts in an English court, a personal representative must therefore prove the will or take out letters of administration here as well as in the country of the domicil of the deceased. But this rule does not operate to prevent a personal representative clothed with authority by the English Court from suing in England in respect of movables actually situate abroad.
- p. 271. In granting probate or letters of administration, the English Court will generally follow the grant (if any)

made by the competent Court of the domicile; but it appears doubtful if the mere fact that a person has obtained a grant as executor in the foreign court will entitle him as of right to recognition of that character here. If the English Court does not consider him entitled as executor, it will, it seems, grant him letters of administration *cum testamento annexo*.

PART II.
PROPERTY.
CAP. VII.
p. 272.

The personal representative, when once clothed with authority by the English Court, is bound to administer the personal assets of the deceased in England. p. 274.

The title of a personal representative to the personal assets within the jurisdiction of the Court from which he derives his authority is not divested by the removal of the assets to another jurisdiction, unless they are removed under such circumstances as to remain still unappropriated assets, belonging to the general estate. p. 275.

The effect of Scotch and Irish probates in England is regulated by the statutory provisions of 21 & 22 Vict. c. 56, s. 12, and 20 & 21 Vict. c. 95, respectively. A foreign personal representative, who has not obtained authority from an English Court, nor received English assets, cannot be sued in his representative character in England. p. 277.
p. 278.

(d) *Probate and Administration Duty.*

When probate or administration is granted by an English Court, probate or administration duty is payable to the English Government on the value of the assets locally situate in England at the time of the death of the deceased, without reference to the law of his domicile, or the value of the assets situate there. p. 281.

The local situation of transferable securities, which pass from hand to hand, is that in which they are actually found. p. 282.

The local situation of stocks and shares, transferable only in one place, is the place where they are so transferable. p. 281.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

- p. 283. If the law of the country where assets are locally situate requires double administration to be taken out in order to reduce them into possession, double duty is payable to the local Government. The law of the domicile of any or all of the parties is in such a case immaterial.

(e) *Succession and Legacy Duty.*

- p. 284. Succession and legacy duty is payable to the English Government in respect of the personal estate of every testator who dies domiciled in England; and is assessed not only on his personal estate in England, but upon all his personal movable estate, wherever situate in fact.
- p. 285. The duty does not attach upon annuities or legacies charged on foreign land, nor upon chattels real abroad.
- p. 286. Succession duty is payable upon chattels real situate in England, though the domicile of the testator be foreign. The personal character of such estate, and its liability to English succession duty, is determined by the English law as the *lex situs*, claiming in that right to govern immovables.
- p. 286. Succession duty is payable on personal estate appointed by the will of a testator domiciled abroad, under a power of appointment created by an English will or settlement. [And see the Succession Duty Act, 1853 (16 & 17 Vict. c. 51), s. 4.] So also, on successions to a settled fund vested in English trustees, consisting of English stocks and shares, though the instrument creating the settlement was the will of a testator domiciled abroad. But not, it seems, by the trustees who take immediately under such a will.
- p. 290. So, where the instrument creating the trusts of the settlement is a deed *inter vivos*. So, it seems in such a case to be sufficient that the funds should be vested in English trustees, though they have not actually been brought into England.
- p. 292. When succession duty is calculated according to the degree of relationship between the successor and the

person from whom the succession is derived upon his death, the legitimacy of the successor is referred to the law of his domicile, not the domicile of the person from whom he derives succession.

PART II.
PROPERTY.
CAP. VII.

(f) *Distribution of Movable Personal Estate by Executors Administrators.*

The distribution of movable personal estate in the hands of executors or administrators is regulated generally by the law of the domicile of the deceased.

But when the deceased was domiciled abroad, ancillary administration is taken out here, it is doubtful whether the priorities of creditors will not be regulated by the English law, as that from which the local administrator derives his authority. The English law will clearly prevail, as the *lex fori*, whenever a matter of procedure is involved. And by the English law, creditors in the same class are entitled to dividends *pari passu* with English creditors.

(iv.) *Assignment of Personal Property by Law on Bankruptcy or Insolvency.*—The transfer of personal property by alienation *inter vivos* and by succession by devise or *ab intestato* having been now considered, it becomes necessary to discuss the operation of the universal assignments which take place by operation of law upon the bankruptcy of the owner. The first question is, to what property of the bankrupt do these universal assignments to trustees or assignees for the benefit of his creditors extend? And this question must be regarded as quite apart from that which is apparently connected with it, as to the effect of a bankruptcy in one jurisdiction in discharging debts contracted in or sued for in the courts of another, depending as it does upon entirely different principles. The latter question will be discussed when the nature of obligations is treated of, and their inherent liability to discharge.

Movables—
Bankruptcy.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Bankruptcy.Effect of
English
bankruptcy.
Bankruptcy
Act, 1883.

The question, then, being simply as to the view taken by English Courts of the effect of a bankruptcy in assigning the personal property of the bankrupt, it is obvious that two sorts of bankruptcies have to be considered. It must be seen, first, what effect English Courts attribute to an English bankruptcy; and, secondly, what to a foreign one, with regard to property situate both within and without the jurisdiction under which the assignment is made.

First, then, with regard to an English bankruptcy, by s. 44, sub-s. (2), (i.), (ii.), and (iii.), of the Bankruptcy Act, 1883, it is enacted that the property of the bankrupt divisible amongst his creditors (which is vested in the trustee by s. 54 of the same Act) shall comprise all such property as may belong to or be vested in the bankrupt at the commencement of the bankruptcy, or may be acquired by or devolve on him before his discharge (with certain exceptions in the previous sub-sections which are immaterial to this question), all powers in or over or in respect of property, and all goods and chattels being at the commencement of the bankruptcy in the possession, order, or disposition of the bankrupt in his trade or business, by the consent and permission of the true owner, under such circumstances that he is the reputed owner thereof. *Choses in action*, other than debts due to him in the course of his trade or business, are excluded from this last category (of goods of which he has the reputed ownership). It will be seen that there is thus no territorial limitation in the statute, which regards the actual situation of personal chattels as immaterial, on the principle of "*mobilia sequuntur personam*." As to real estate, s. 168 of the same statute enacts that "property" is to include real or personal property, whether situate in England or elsewhere; but it has been already pointed out (a) that, as to real estate and chattels real, an assignment is good by the *lex situs* alone. This extensive

(a) *Supra*, p. 193. As to the effect of the Bankruptcy Act on land in the colonies, see per Jessel, M.R., in *Ex parte Rogers, Re Boustead*, 16 Ch. D. 665; and *supra*, p. 209.

operation of the statute as to personal chattels is in accordance with the view taken by English law; and it is well established in England that an English assignment in bankruptcy operates as a complete and valid transfer of all the personal chattels of the bankrupt, wherever they are situate.(a) And this is so, in the contemplation of English law, whatever the domicile of the bankrupt.(b) In *Ex parte Crispin* (c) it was decided, on appeal, that an alien non-trader, domiciled abroad, who contracts debts in England may be made a bankrupt under the Bankruptcy Act, 1869, provided that an act of bankruptcy has been committed in England, although he may have left England before the petition for adjudication is presented. But the English Court has no jurisdiction to make an adjudication of bankruptcy against a foreigner, domiciled and resident abroad, who has never been in England, though member of an English firm which has traded and contracted debts in England, and an order for service of a petition abroad will therefore not be made in such a case.(d) It was said in the case last cited that an act of bankruptcy must be a *personal* act or default, and cannot, therefore, be committed by an agent or co-partner in a foreign country. Where a firm carried on business both in Paris and London, two of the partners residing in London and three in Paris, the Court of Appeal refused to stay the English bankruptcy on the application of the French syndic in a bankruptcy

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Bankruptcy.

Bankruptcy
jurisdiction of
English
Court.

(a) *Phillips v. Hunter*, 2 H. Bl. 402; *Sill v. Worswick*, 1 H. Bl. 665; *Hunter v. Potts*, 4 T. R. 182; *Wilson's Case*, cited 1 H. Bl. 691; *Neal v. Cottingham*, 1 H. Bl. 132, n.; *Ex parte Blakes*, 1 Cox, 398.

(b) The English Bankruptcy Court assumes jurisdiction—under the Bankruptcy Act, 1883, s. 6 (1)—if the debtor is domiciled in England, or, within a year before the date of the petition, has ordinarily resided or had a dwelling-house or place of business in England. It has been held that occupation of and payment for a room in a London hotel for over twelve months before the petition was “ordinary residence” within this section: *In re Norris, Ex parte Reynolds*, W. N. 1888, p. 87. And exclusive occupation, with wife and servants, of five furnished rooms in a London house has been held to be “having a dwelling-house” within this section: *In re Hecquard*, 24 Q. B. D. 91.

(c) L. R. 8 Ch. 374; 42 L. J. Bank. 65.

(d) *Ex parte Blain, Re Sawers*, 12 Ch. D. 522.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Bankruptcy.

in France.(a) So, under the older statutes, it was held that the essential requisite to make an act of bankruptcy cognizable in our Courts was that it should have been committed in England.(b) In *Phillips v. Hunter*, just cited, it was said that no foreign residence—i.e., domicile—could exempt an English subject from the operation of the bankruptcy laws, whether such residence was temporary or permanent; but the question of nationality appears now to be immaterial for this purpose, much less weight being now given to it in such matters than was formerly the case. The principle of *Ex parte Crispin*,(c) that a foreigner, who has contracted a debt in England and committed an act of bankruptcy in England, is amenable to our bankrupt law, was extended by a later decision(d) to the case of a foreigner who has committed an act of bankruptcy in England, and is proceeded against under the Bankruptcy Act by another foreigner in respect of a debt contracted abroad. It was contended on behalf of the bankrupt that though his transient presence in England would make him liable to a common law action in respect of the debts contracted abroad,(e) yet it did not render him subject to the service of a debtor's summons under the Bankruptcy Act, for which the same jurisdiction was necessary as in cases of actual adjudication.(f) Mellish, L.J., however, expressed his opinion that transient presence and the commission of an act of bankruptcy in England were sufficient to found jurisdiction under the Bankruptcy Act, 1869, whether for the service of a debtor's summons simply, or for petition and adjudication. By the earlier Bankruptcy Consolidation Act of 1849 (s. 277) foreigners who were traders were expressly made subject to the banking laws, and under this and the older

(a) *Re Hermanos*, 6 Times Law Rep. 271.(b) *Ex parte Smith*, Cowp. 402; *Inglist v. Grant*, 5 T. R. 530; *Norden v. James*, Dick. 533.

(c) L. R. 8 Ch. 374; 42 L. J. Bank. 65.

(d) *Ex parte Pascal, Re Meyer*, L. R. 1 Ch. D. 509.(e) *Jackson v. Spittall*, L. R. 5 C. P. 542.(f) *Ex parte O'Loughlen*, L. R. 6 Ch. 406, 410.

statutes it was decided that foreign residence was immaterial.^(a) The decisions in the cases of *Ex parte Crispin* and *Ex parte Pascal*, just cited, show clearly that the question of domicile need not now be regarded, although Story seems to consider it as the basis of the principle now under discussion. It may, of course, be an important element of fact, in considering whether an act of bankruptcy has been committed within 46 & 47 Vict. c. 52, s. 4 (d): "If with intent to delay or defeat his creditors he . . . departs out of England, or being out of England remains out of England, or departs from his dwelling-house, or otherwise absents himself." But where a debtor has a *bond fide* foreign residence, though retaining an English domicile, it was held that he did not come within this sub-section by merely returning to and remaining in his foreign residence.^(b) There must be something to show an intention to delay and defeat creditors.^(c)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII

Bankruptcy.Foreign
residence.Foreign
judicial pro-
cess—effect of.

English Courts, therefore, will regard the title of the trustee in an English bankruptcy to personal property situate abroad as complete, but the question assumes a slightly different form where this title has already been disregarded by a foreign Court, and a creditor of the bankrupt has possessed himself by foreign judicial process of the foreign property. Where such creditor is domiciled in England and has notice of the English bankruptcy, the assignees have been held entitled to recover the proceeds he had thus appropriated in an action for money had and received,^(d) but appear to have no right of action against a foreign garnishee, who has paid a debt due to the bankrupt estate to the creditor under or in expectation of the compulsion of a competent

(a) *Alexander v. Vaughan*, Cowp. 398; *Allen v. Cannon*, 4 B. & A. 418; *Ex parte Smith*, Cowp. 402; *Williams v. Nunn*, 1 Taunt. 270.

(b) *Ex parte Brandon*, 25 Ch. D. 500.

(c) *Ex parte Langworthy*, 3 Times Law Rep. 544. Cf. *Ex parte Gutierrez*, 11 Ch. D. 298; *In re Campbell*, 4 Morell, 198 (1887).

(d) *Hunter v. Potts*, 4 T. R. 182; *Phillips v. Hunter*, 2 H. Bl. 402; *Sill v. Worswick*, 1 H. Bl. 665; *Ex parte Scinde Railway Co.*, L. R. 9 Ch. 557.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Bankruptcy.

jurisdiction.(a) From the judgment of Lord Rosslyn in *Sill v. Worswick* Mr. Westlake deduces, first, that the title of the assignees ought to be preferred to that of any creditor by a foreign Court, if intimated to it *pendente lite*, and, secondly, that if it is disregarded by it, an English creditor, but not a foreign one, will be compelled in an English court to yield the proceeds he has acquired abroad to the English assignees.(b) The distinction drawn between an English and a foreign creditor is clearly one of nationality in the authorities on which this proposition is based, but Mr. Westlake, though speaking of an "Englishman" and "an English creditor," uses language that would lead to the belief that the English domicile is or should be the distinguishing test. The distinction between domicile and nationality was not so clearly marked at the end of the last century, when those cases were decided, as it is at present, and it is certainly difficult to see now in what sense an English subject who has acquired a foreign domicile remains subject to the English bankruptcy law with regard to his acts done abroad, so as to be bound by an assignment under it of the property of an English bankrupt any more than other people. If the creditor was domiciled in England, and so subject to its laws, the case would be very different, but even then there appears no authority in the cases cited for saying that he would be compelled to refund, if the foreign Court, after due notice of the title of the assignees, had pronounced judgment in his favour. All that is said is that no foreign Court that respected the comity of nations ought to pronounce such a judgment, but that a creditor who recovers in such a way, and is not subject to the bankrupt laws of England nor affected by them (whatever that may mean), can certainly not be compelled to refund, if sued by the assignees. The validity

(a) *Le Chevalier v. Lynch*, Dougl. 170; *Cleve v. Mills*, Cock. 1764; *Allen v. Douglas*, 3 T. R. 125.

(b) *Westlake*, § 279; 1 H. Bl. 693; 2 H. Bl. 405, 406, 408.

of such a judgment, if pronounced, being in a certain sense *in rem*, (a) can hardly on general principles be questioned, at any rate as between the parties to it.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Bankruptcy.

Where there has been no judgment pronounced by the foreign Court, but a creditor has merely obtained possession by foreign attachment of the bankrupt's property, it is clear from the later case of *Sellrig v. Davis* (b) that whether there has been a formal intimation to the garnishee or not of the bankruptcy, the creditor can take nothing by such diligence, and if he can be reached by the English Court, will be compelled to refund. If he is neither present within the jurisdiction, nor has property within it, nor comes before the English Court of Bankruptcy to prove for other debts due to him in excess of the value of what he has acquired by the foreign process, (c) it is plain that he cannot be reached or in any way obliged to disgorge. But where a bankrupt estate is being administered in England, and the foreign estate of the same debtor or debtors is also the subject of a bankruptcy abroad, creditors who have received a dividend under the foreign bankruptcy will not be allowed to prove in the English bankruptcy unless they bring in what they have received abroad. (d) Substantially the same rule had been laid down under the Bankruptcy Act of 1861. (e) Nor will a foreign creditor be allowed to make any use of a judgment obtained abroad pending English administration; though he will not be restrained from proceeding to obtain such judgment in his own country. (f) This principle was also admitted in *Ex parte Dobree*, (g) where the only real dispute was whether the foreign attachment was complete, so as to vest the property attached, before

(a) Story, § 592; *McDaniell v. Hughes*, 3 East, 367; *Cammell v. Sewell*, 29 L. J. Ex. 350.

(b) 2 Rose, 291; S. C. 2 Dow 230. See also *Royal Bank of Scotland v. Cuthbert*, 2 Rose, 78; *Smith v. Buchanan*, 1 East, 6.

(c) As in *In re Oriental Inland Steam Co., Ex parte Scinde Ry. Co.*, L. R. 9 Ch. 557.

(d) *Banco de Portugal v. Waddell*, 11 Ch. D. 522; S. C. 5 App. Cas. 161.

(e) *Ex parte Wilson*, L. R. 7 Ch. 490.

(f) *In re Boyse, Crofton v. Crofton*, 49 L. J. Ch. 699.

(g) 8 Ves. 82.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Bankruptcy.

the English bankruptcy or not. Where the bankrupt was a partner in a firm trading and having assets both in England and in the West Indies, and after the English bankruptcy a creditor of the firm attached a debt due to the firm in the West Indies, it was held that the assignees could not compel him to refund the proceeds thus obtained, (a) the principle being apparently that the English bankruptcy could not affect the partnership assets situate abroad, as against the foreign creditors and the foreign partners. The ordinary rule applicable to the bankruptcy of a partner being that the partnership is dissolved, and that the trustee in the bankruptcy becomes tenant in common with the other partners of the partnership property, who retain their authority to deal with the business in order to wind it up, (b) the decision of Sir W. Grant in the case just referred to appears to have been correct. But if the partners in the foreign firm are the same as those in England, and both firms are bankrupt, a mere difference in the firm name will not let in a double proof. (c) As a matter of discretion, the Court of Appeal has refused to set aside an English bankruptcy on the ground that a bankruptcy against the same firm was pending in France, and that the French syndic applied to have the foreign bankruptcy stayed. (d)

Effect of
foreign
bankruptcy.

So much for the effect of an English bankruptcy in assigning personal chattels of the bankrupt situate abroad. As to the operation of a foreign bankruptcy in England, the same universal effect of such an assignment that the English law claims for bankruptcies declared by itself is conceded by it to those which result from the laws of foreign countries. Accordingly, it is settled that an assignment by a foreign bankruptcy passes all the personal property of the bankrupt situate in England, in-

(a) *Brickwood v. Miller*, 3 Mer. 279; *Waring v. Knight*, cited in *Phillips v. Hunter*, 2 H. Bl. 410.

(b) *Lindley on Partnerships*, p. 1175.

(c) *Banco de Portugal v. Waddell*, 11 Ch. D. 522; S. C. 5 App. Cas. 161.

(d) *Re Hermanos, Ex parte Andrechah*, 6 Times Law Rep. 271. In this case the firm carried on business both in Paris and London, two of the firm residing in London and three in Paris.

cluding *choses in action*.(a) *Re Blithman* (b) is perhaps a little inconsistent with this doctrine, Lord Romilly holding that the question whether or not an Australian insolvency applied to personalty in England depended upon the domicile of the insolvent, who had died since the adjudication, and that if his domicile was English, and an Australian domicile had not been acquired, the title of his English executrix must prevail. It does not appear to have been quite clear whether Lord Romilly considered that it was the domicile at the time of the adjudication of insolvency or that at the time of the death which ought to be regarded, as he uses expressions consistent with either view, and mutually contradictory, in his judgment; but it is submitted that as the English bankrupt law does not require an English domicile to found its jurisdiction,(c) so it should recognise foreign insolvencies and bankruptcies without inquiring whether the subject of them was or was not domiciled in the country where his bankruptcy or insolvency was declared; and this view seems to be supported by the judgment of James, L.J., in a later case.(d) And though it is of course established law that the personal estate of a testator or intestate shall be distributed according to the law of his domicile, yet, in the first place, the Australian assignment under the insolvency in the case of *Re Blithman* ought to have been held operative on the English property by English law, as part of the law of nations, and not merely by the Australian statute; and secondly, if it operated at all, it did so at once, so that at the time of the death the English property belonged to the assignees under the insolvency, and was not part of the estate of the deceased for purposes of succession at all. Where the foreign bankruptcy is pending, and the bankrupt, without having obtained his discharge under it, is adjudicated bankrupt on a new petition in England, it would seem on principle that there should be no distinc-

PART II.
PROPERTY.
CAP. VII.
Bankruptcy.

(a) *Solomons v. Ross*, 1 H. Bl. 131, n.; *Tollet v. Deponthieu*, *ibid.* 132, n.; *Potter v. Brown*, 5 East, 124; *Ex parte Cridland*, 3 V. & B. 94.

(b) 35 Beav. 219; L. R. 2 Eq. 23. (c) *Supra* p. 303.

(d) *In re Davidson's Settlement Trusts*, L. R. 15 Eq. 383.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Bankruptcy.Title of
foreign
assignees.

tion between such a case and a case where both the bankruptcies are English.(a) In such an event it was decided, prior to the Bankruptcy Act of 1869, that the Court would support the title of the assignees under the later bankruptcy against those under the earlier one in respect of property acquired between the two bankruptcies, but not, of course, in respect of that which the bankrupt had previously held.(b)

All the property of the foreign bankrupt being vested in his assignees, they become of course entitled to his *choses in action*, for which they may have to come to English courts, and their right to sue there in their own names depends in the first place upon the original negotiability or liability to assignment of the obligation which it is sought to put in force. If the obligation was negotiable or assignable in its inception, then the assignees may sue in their own names,(c) the question not being then of the remedy available, which is a matter for the *lex fori*.(d) but of the nature of the contract. If, on the other hand, the *chose in action* is an ordinary debt, the assignees are not, according to the view best supported, entitled to sue on it in their own names.(e) In the case of *Alison v. Furnival* (f) the point was not distinctly raised. There the bankrupt, prior to his bankruptcy and the appointment of provisional syndics in France, had become the creditor of the defendant on a French award and judgment, and the contest was rather whether two of the syndics were entitled to sue in their own names by the law of France, than whether the English law as to the non-assignability of obligations was to prevail. *O'Callaghan v. Thomond*.(g) where the assignee of an Irish judgment, made assignable by an Irish statute, was held entitled to sue in his own name, was not cited, but the Court were perhaps entitled to apply the principle of that case, the

(a) Griffith on Bankruptcy, p. 94.

(b) *Morgan v. Knight*, 33 L. J. C. P. 168.(c) *Jeffery v. M'Taggart*, 6 M. & S. 126; *Wolff v. Oxholme*, *ibid.* 99.(d) *Infra*, Chap. X.(e) *Wolff v. Oxholme*, 6 M. & S. 92, 99.

(f) 1 C. M. & R. 277.

(g) 3 Taunt. 81.

debt being on a French judgment. Parke, B., in his judgment, treated the plaintiffs not strictly as assignees of the creditor's *choses in action*, but as mandatories or agents for the creditors under the French bankrupt law. In *Smith v. Buchanan* (a) Lord Kenyon said the English law so far gave way to foreign laws of bankruptcy that assignees of bankrupts deriving title under foreign ordinances were permitted to sue here for debts due to the bankrupt's estate, but that *dictum*, if it meant that such assignees were entitled to sue in their own names, is certainly inconsistent with the later cases already cited, (b) and considerable doubt is thrown by Story, § 565, on the decisions in the two cases mentioned above. The general principle that an obligation not assignable in its inception cannot be sued for by an assignee, either for valuable consideration or under a bankruptcy, in a form which does not recognise the ordinary assignment of *choses in action*, appears to be strictly analogous to the rule as to debts due to the estate of a testator or intestate, which requires the personal representative to perfect his title according to the *lex fori*, by taking out administration in his own name, before he can recover them by suit.

PART II.
PROPERTY.
CAP. VII.
Bankruptcy.

By the Judicature Act, 1873, s. 25, sub-s. 6, it is enacted that any absolute assignment by writing under the hand of the assignor (not purporting to be by way of charge only) of any debt or other legal *chose in action*, of which express notice in writing shall have been given to the debtor, trustee, or other person from whom the assignor would have been entitled to receive or claim such debt or *chose in action*, shall be, and be deemed to have been, effectual in law (subject to prior equities) to pass and transfer the legal right to such debt or *chose in action* from the date of such notice, and all legal and other remedies for the same. It would therefore seem that the assignees under a foreign bankruptcy could now obtain a clear title to sue in their own names for *choses in action* Assignability
of choses in
action.

(a) 1 East, 6, 11.

(b) *Jeffery v. M'Taggart*, 6 M. & S. 126; *Wolf v. Oxholm*, *ibid.* 92; *Folliott v. Ogden*, 1 H. Bl. 131.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Bankruptcy.

of the bankrupt in England, by calling upon him to execute to them such a written assignment as the section just quoted contemplates, and giving the required notice to the garnishee. The distribution of assets under a bankruptcy is entirely a matter for the *lex fori*, under the authority of which the bankrupt has been adjudicated and the distribution ordered. Thus, all questions of the priority of creditors must be determined by the law of the country where the bankruptcy takes place,^(a) and the question whether or not a creditor's claim is capable of proof at all must be referred to the same test.^(b) And where double proof against the estates of two bankrupt firms is not allowed by English law, the fact that the first bankruptcy under which the creditor has proved was in Brazil will not render his proof admissible under the bankruptcy in England.^(c) It should be remarked, however, that in this case the bills which it was desired to make the subject of the proof had been accepted in England, so that the English law might have been applied as that of the place where the contract was to be performed.^(d) Moreover, a foreign creditor, residing out of the jurisdiction of the Court of Bankruptcy, who comes in and proves his debt in an English bankruptcy or liquidation, brings himself thereby within the general jurisdiction of the Court as to the administration of the estate, just as if he were residing within it; so that an order can be made upon him to restore property of the bankrupt or debtor improperly in his possession.^(e) It would seem that the mere fact of a foreign assignee being present in England with assets in his hands will not warrant an English Court in assuming to control his management of the estate, at any rate unless it is sufficiently shown that the bankrupt has failed to obtain justice in the ordinary courts of the country

(a) *Thurburn v. Steward*, L. R. 3 P. C. 478; *Pardo v. Bingham*, L. R. 6 Eq. 485.

(b) *Ex parte Melbourn*, L. R. 6 Ch. 64.

(c) *Ex parte Goldsmid*, 7 H. L. C. 785; S. C. 1 De G. & J. 257.

(d) See judgment of Turner, L.J., 1 De G. & J. 285, and *Don v. Lippman*, 5 Cl. & F. 1.

(e) *Ex parte Robertson, Re Morton*, L. R. 20 Eq. 733.

where the bankruptcy took place.(a) And the fact that a creditor in an administration suit has obtained an advantage by means of a foreign attachment upon foreign assets, in respect of a debt barred by the English Statute of Limitations, but not by the foreign law, will not be a reason why an English Court should call upon him to account for these proceeds or bring them into hotchpot when he is proving under the English administration for another debt.(b) But it has already been shown that, where the estate of the same debtor is being administered both in England and abroad, a creditor who has received a dividend under the foreign bankruptcy will not be allowed to prove in England without bringing in what he has received.(c)

PART II.
PROPERTY.
CAP. VII.
Bankruptcy.

So far as bankruptcies in courts which are British though not English are concerned, the trustee's power of reaching movables within one of the sister jurisdictions is reinforced by s. 118 of the Bankruptcy Act, 1883, which directs the officers of English, Scotch, Irish, and other British Courts to act in aid of each other. An order has been made in England under this section in aid of the Court of the Cape of Good Hope.(d)

SUMMARY.

ASSIGNMENT OF MOVABLE PERSONAL ESTATE ON BANKRUPTCY OR INSOLVENCY.

To found the jurisdiction of the Bankruptcy Court, it is p. 303. not necessary that the alleged bankrupt should be domiciled in England. It is sufficient if the debt in respect of which bankruptcy proceedings are taken was contracted, and the act of bankruptcy took place, in England, the debtor himself being commorant or even transiently present there. p. 304.

(a) *Smith v. Moffatt*, L. R. 1 Eq. 397.

(b) *In re Bowes, Strathmore v. Vane*, W. N. 1889, p. 53.

(c) *Banco de Portugal v. Waddell*, 11 Ch. D. 522; S. C. on appeal, 5 App. Cas. 161; *Ex parte Wilson*, 7 Ch. 490.

(d) *In re Fribank, Ex parte Knight*, 4 Morell, 50; but see *ante*, p. 212, as to the meaning of the word "British" in this section.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

And it seems to be enough that the last two conditions should be complied with, though the debt was contracted abroad. But there must have been an act of bankruptcy in England, which is a personal act or default, and cannot be committed through an agent.

Assignment under an English bankruptcy includes all movable personal estate of the bankrupt, wherever situate, and whatever his domicile.

pp. 302-304.

The title of the trustee is therefore complete to all movable chattels of the bankrupt abroad, including *choses in action*. But if a foreign creditor of the bankrupt has obtained possession of any such movables by a competent judgment of a local Court, the title of the trustee will not prevail against him even in England; though there is some authority for contending that if a domiciled Englishman has used like diligence, an English Court will not allow him to hold the proceeds as against the trustee. Nothing less, however, than a *judgment* of a competent foreign Court will in any case defeat the trustee's title. But a creditor who has received a dividend under a foreign bankruptcy will not be allowed to prove against the estate of the same debtor in England without bringing in what he has received.

p. 307.

pp. 308, 309.

Assignment under a foreign bankruptcy to foreign assignees extends to all the movable personal estate of the bankrupt in England, including *choses in action*. It is not, however, clear that if the bankrupt's domicile be English the title of his foreign assignees will prevail against that of his personal representative on his death.

p. 310.

The right of the foreign assignees to sue in England for a debt due to the bankrupt will be the same as that which would be conferred by an ordinary English assignment of the debt.

p. 312.

Priorities of creditors and all other questions of proof and distribution under a bankruptcy will be governed by the *lex fori*; which will deal with creditors who have submitted to the jurisdiction by coming before the Court without regard to their domicile.

(v.) *Alienation of Movable Personal Property by Marriage*.—The last species of assignment by which personal property is transferred is that universal assignment which results from the marriage of the owner when a woman, and is absolutely regulated by the law of the matrimonial domicile—*i.e.*, the domicile of the husband at the time of the celebration of the marriage. Story cites for this the words of Lord Meadowbank in *Royal Bank of Scotland v. Cuthbert (a)*: “When a lady of fortune having a great deal of money in Scotland, or stock in the banks of public companies there, marries in London, the whole property is *ipso jure* her husband’s. It is assigned to him. The legal assignment of a marriage operates without regard to territory all the world over.” It is obvious, however, that this language is just as applicable to the *lex loci celebrationis* as to the *lex domicilii*, and it is extremely probable that the learned judge was confounding the two laws, the case before him being that of an English adjudication of bankruptcy against a firm carrying on business both in Edinburgh and in London, and whose domicile for the purposes of the case was considered as being in both countries equally. The principle of the *lex domicilii*, however, is regarded by all writers as firmly established. (b) The law of the matrimonial domicile is also that which is strictly applicable to marriage settlements of personal property as between husband and wife, yet this statement is not to be accepted without qualification. For example, its effect does not survive as against creditors when the husband is afterwards adjudicated bankrupt in another competent jurisdiction, but the law there in force will prevail. (c) This simply follows from the general rule that, in a distribution of assets in a *concursum* of creditors, the order of distribution is a matter for the *lex fori* where the distribution takes place, (d) and does not at all interfere with the principle that the law of the matrimonial

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Assignments
on marriage—
lex domicilii.

(a) 1 Rose, App. 481.

(b) Story, § 423; Westlake, § 366.

(c) *Thurburn v. Steward*, L. R. 3 P. C. 478.

(d) Per Lord Cairns, L. R. 3 P. C. 513.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Assignments
on marriage.*

domicil at the time of the marriage regulates the rights which husband and wife acquire in each other's personal property. By placing himself within the reach of a foreign bankrupt law, the husband in *Thurburn v. Steward* rendered himself and his wife liable to the operation of that law upon all the rights that had become vested in them at the time of their marriage. The reverse case occurred in *Ex parte Melbourn*,^(a) where the matrimonial domicil was foreign, and the bankruptcy occurred in England. On the same principle that was the ground of the decision in *Thurburn v. Steward*, the wife was allowed in the case last mentioned, following the English law, to prove for a sum agreed to be settled upon her, though the law of Batavia, where the parties were domiciled and the settlement was made at the time of the marriage, rendered the contract of settlement invalid, as against creditors, for want of registration. Nor is the law of the matrimonial domicil necessarily that which regulates the interpretation and construction of settlements of personal property made on marriage. In interpreting ambiguous or technical expressions, the domicil of the parties is an element which ought to be taken into consideration,^(b) but where there is no expression of a contrary intention, a marriage settlement, like an ordinary contract, is to be interpreted according to the law of the country where it is executed.^(c) In the words of Story, the general rule is in no case more firmly adhered to than in cases of nuptial contracts and settlements—that written agreements are to be construed and enforced according to the *lex loci contractus*.^(d) In most of the cases, however, the place of the matrimonial domicil is also that where the settlement is executed, and a conflict between the two laws does not arise. Westlake says, on the same subject, that while the external and formal requisites depend generally on the place of celebration,

Conflict
between *lex
loci* and *lex
domicilii*.

(a) L. R. 6 Ch. 64.

(b) *Lansdown v. Lansdown*, 2 Bligh, 60, 87.

(c) *Holmes v. Holmes*, 1 Russ. & My. 660; *Lansdown v. Lansdown*, 2 Bligh, 60; *Trimbey v. Vignier*, 1 Bing. N. C. 151, and *infra*, Chap. VIII. (ii.).

(d) Story, § 276.

the interpretation generally, and the legality and operation always, depend upon the domicile.(a) In *Anstruther v. Adair*(b) the domicile of the parties was Scotch, and an ante-nuptial contract, affecting the personality which was the subject-matter of the suit, had been entered into in Scotland. In holding that the contract must be governed by the Scotch law, Lord Brougham said nothing to indicate whether the law was adopted as being the *lex domicilii* or the *lex loci contractus*, but rested his judgment solely on the ground that the intention of the parties would be defeated if the Scotch law was not followed. The intention of the parties is, no doubt, the true governing principle, if it can be ascertained, but the question is whether the law of the matrimonial domicile, or that of the place where the contract is entered into, is most likely to be in the minds of the contracting parties. And though Westlake, in the passage quoted, refers the interpretation of marriage contracts to the law of the domicile, he elsewhere expresses a view more consistent with that taken by Story, when treating of the interpretation and construction of contracts generally.(c) *Foubert v. Turst*,(d) again, was a case where the place of the matrimonial domicile, at the time of the execution of the contract, was also the place where the contract was executed, and there is nothing in the decision to support either law at expense of the other. A different state of things existed in *Duncan v. Cannan*,(e) but there the marriage contract, though prepared and signed in England, was in the Scotch form, so that the intention of the parties to be governed by the Scotch law was clearly indicated. And as Lord Justice Knight Bruce, in giving judgment, attached as much weight to this fact as to the domicile of the husband, it is hardly an authority for the law of the domicile as opposed to that of the place of the contract in cases where the

PART II.
PROPERTY.
CAP. VII.

Assignments
on marriage.

(a) Westlake, § 371.

(b) 2 My. & K. 513. See *Warrender v. Warrender*, 2 Cl. & F. 468; *Sauer v. Shute*, 1 Anstr. 63.

(c) Westlake, § 188.

(d) Prec. Ch. 207; 1 Bro. P. C. 38.

(e) 18 Beav. 128; 7 De G. M. & G. 78.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

Assignments
on marriage.

forms prescribed by the latter law are adopted. In *Este v. Smyth* (a) the marriage contract was executed, and the marriage celebrated, in France, and the validity of the former by its terms depended upon that of the latter. The parties were English by nationality, and the marriage was celebrated at the English Embassy. Lord Romilly in effect held, that whether this was a good marriage or not by the law of France, it was good in an English Court, and that the contract (to that extent) must be construed by English rules. But as to the general rights of the parties, he held that the French law must prevail, and that the contract must be expounded by it, in order that the intention of the parties might be carried into effect. Of the matrimonial domicile nothing is said in the judgment, except that the fact of the parties being *resident* in France at the time of the execution of the contract was immaterial, and Westlake says of this case that the domicile was really French, and the contract interpreted by French law. So far as this is true it is obvious that the case is not an authority for the law of the matrimonial domicile as opposed to that of the place of the execution of the contracts. In *Guepratte v. Youny* (b) the law of France, which was the domicile of the husband and the *locus celebrationis*, was expressly adopted by the nuptial contract.

Lex domicilii
—ousted by
agreement.

The *dictum* of Mr. Westlake just cited, to the effect that the legality and operation of marriage contracts depend always upon the law of the matrimonial domicile, cannot now be accepted in its entirety, at any rate with regard to a settlement made in England in a case where the domicile of the husband only is foreign. In such a case it would seem that an English Court will be indisposed to allow the subsequent operation of the settlement to be interfered with by any act of foreign law, though that law belongs to the matrimonial domicile. Thus, where a settlement had been made in England on a marriage between a domiciled Turkish subject and an English lady, entered into on the faith of the husband's

(a) 18 Beav. 112.

(b) 4 De G. & Sm. 217.

representations that he would reside in England, a divorce in Turkey was disregarded, the effect of which by Turkish law was to annul the settlement, but which had in fact been pronounced without notice to the wife or the other persons interested under the settlement.(a) It cannot be said, however, that Hall, V.C., in that case expressly decided against the law of the domicile, inasmuch as he expressed himself satisfied that the husband represented to the wife at the time of the marriage that he intended to leave Turkey and come to reside as a domiciled Englishman, whether that was in reality his intention or not. It was apparently assumed that this fact was sufficient to oust the law of the husband's actual domicile altogether, and the Vice-Chancellor said that the rights of the parties claiming under the settlement must be recognised and dealt with according to English law, by which the contract, being English, was admittedly to be expounded. Regarding the contract as English, it was further said that a Turkish Court could not make void an English settlement in the absence of parties taking benefits under it. It is not quite clear whether the Vice-Chancellor intended by the expression "an English settlement" a contract that had been made in England, and nothing more, or a contract that had been made in England by a person who announced at the same time his intention of taking an English domicile; but it is plain enough, that inasmuch as the matrimonial domicile remained as a matter of fact Turkish throughout, the decision is an authority to show that the law of that domicile is not allowed absolutely to control a settlement made in England. Perhaps the clearest way of indicating the principle involved is that taken by Lord Romilly in an earlier case;(b) where it was said, that if a foreigner and an Englishwoman make an express contract previous to marriage, and if on the faith of that contract the marriage afterwards takes place, and if the contract relates to the regulation of property

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Assignments
on marriage.*

(a) *Collis v. Hector*, L. R. 19 Eq. 334, 340.

(b) *Van Grutten v. Digby*, 31 Beav. 561.

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Assignments
on marriage.*

within the jurisdiction and subject to the laws of this country, in such a case an English Court will administer the law on the subject as if the whole matter were to be regulated by English law. From the two cases last cited the test question appears to be, by what law did the parties intend that their rights under the contract should be governed? In *Van Grutten v. Digby*, Lord Romilly, while admitting that foreigners—i.e., persons domiciled abroad—may enter into contracts in England to be governed exclusively by the law of their own country, held that the effect of the provisions in the particular marriage settlement then under his consideration was, that the subject-matter of it was to be regulated by English laws. So in *Collis v. Hector* the circumstance that the marriage had been entered into on the faith of a representation by the husband, that he intended forthwith to change his domicile from Turkey to England, was considered as clearly showing that the law of England was the proper one to regulate its effect, as it was the only one which was expected to do so. The earlier case of *Watts v. Shrimpton* (a) is less clearly indicative of regard to the intention of the parties, inasmuch as it does not appear plainly from the judgment whether the funds which were the subject-matter of the litigation were or were not comprised in the settlement, and that very question was disputed in the course of the argument. The husband's domicile at the time of the marriage was French, and the settlement was made in England, both the contracting parties being English by nationality, and under these circumstances it was held by Lord Romilly that the contract was English, and to be regulated by English law. So far as it related to property in England, there was no doubt the same reason for appealing to the English law that existed in *Van Grutten v. Digby*.

It is probably on the peculiar importance of the law of the matrimonial domicile on all questions arising out of the marriage, that those decisions are really founded

(a) 21 Beav. 97.

which refer the question of capacity to enter into a matrimonial contract as to property to the *lex domicilii*, in preference to the *lex loci*.(a) The question of capacity to contract, however, will be found treated at some length under that heading.(b)

PART II.
PROPERTY.

CAP. VII.

*Assignments
on marriage.*

SUMMARY.

ASSIGNMENT OF PERSONAL PROPERTY ON MARRIAGE.

Where no marriage contract or settlement is entered p. 315.
into, the rights of the parties in and to each other's goods are absolutely regulated by the law of the domicil of the husband at the time the marriage takes place.

When there is such a marriage contract or settlement, pp. 316-319.
the law of the domicil is *prima facie* that which regulates its validity and interpretation; but if the place where the contract is executed is not that of the matrimonial domicil, the governing law appears to be that of the place which must be taken to have been in the contemplation of the parties, either as their intended future residence, or as the *locus* of the subject-matter of the settlement.

Even where there is no dispute as to the proper govern- p. 315.
ing law, in consequence of the marriage having been celebrated, and the contract entered into, in the country of the domicil, yet the rights created by it will not prevail against a subsequent bankruptcy of the husband in a competent foreign court, inasmuch as the distribution of assets in a *concursus* of creditors is governed by the *lex fori* alone.

(a) *Cooke's Trusts*, 56 L. J. Ch. 637; *Cooper v. Cooper*, 13 App. Cas. 88, 108.

(b) *Infra*, Chap. VIII. p. 337 *seq.*

Part III.—ACTS.

CHAPTER VIII.

PART III.
ACTS.

CONTRACTS.

CAP. VIII.

INASMUCH as the greater part of the contracts entered into in the transaction of the ordinary business of life relate more or less directly to *property*, of one kind or another, it has been necessary in the course of the preceding pages, while speaking of the operation of local and foreign laws upon movable and immovable property, to refer more than once to the relation to the same laws of the contracts by which such property is dealt with, and to show that the operation of those contracts is often modified and governed by the effect of the *lex situs* upon the subject-matter with which they are concerned. The necessity of treating of the rights and capacities of *persons* has similarly given rise to a discussion, which would otherwise have been premature, of the effect which such strictly personal qualifications have upon the contracts into which the persons enter. It is nevertheless possible, theoretically speaking, to consider the subject of contracts by itself, abstracting them in theory from the persons who make them and the property which they concern. In practice it will no doubt frequently be found that the law of persons, and the law of property, arise either singly or together to compete with the law of contracts for the ultimate decision of the particular case which is the subject of inquiry; but this is a difficulty which is not confined to private international jurisprudence, and occurs with equal frequency in the investigation of ordinary municipal law. But the inevitable result must be, that just as, in the consideration of

the claims of English law to regulate things and persons, it was not practicable to escape entirely from its operation upon contracts, so in the discussion of contract, it will be impossible uniformly to ignore the law of persons and things.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.

Contracts—
Jurisdiction.

In considering the jurisdiction assumed by English law over contracts, and the extent of its right to determine and define those which come before it, the following factors must be regarded as important: (i.) The place where the contract was made, or the *locus contractus celebrationis*; (ii.) the place where the contract is to be or was to be performed, or the *locus solutionis*; (iii.) the *situs*, or situation of the property which it is intended by the contracting parties to affect; (iv.) the *status* of the contracting parties themselves; and (v.) the operation of the *lex fori* upon the remedy which the litigants seek to obtain from the English Court. The questions of *situs rei* and *status personæ* have already been discussed, and the whole subject of *remedies* will be considered when treating of Procedure; (a) but it will not be practicable to keep the consideration of contract law as a whole entirely distinct from these last-mentioned branches of the subject. It is proposed to treat here of contracts from their inception to their enforcement according to the natural order in which the difficulties arising from the subject present themselves.

(i.) *Jurisdiction as to Contracts.*

It is not proposed to enter into the questions of jurisdiction which are peculiar to Roman jurisprudence and to the systems of those countries which are derived from the civil law. The distinctions between the *forum rei*, the *forum domicilii*, the *forum actoris*, the *forum rei sitæ*, the *forum rei gestæ*, and the *forum rei solvenlæ* are of little practical importance to the English lawyer, (b) whose object it is to inquire simply how far the statutory and common

(a) *Infra*, Chap. X.

(b) They may be found discussed in Story, §§ 532-538; Westlake, p. 89, p. 104; J. Voet, Pandect., tom. i. lib. 5, § 77, *seq.*

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contracts—
Jurisdiction.Rules of
venue.

law powers of his own Courts extend, and over what matters they will assume and maintain jurisdiction.

The element of the English Common Law, which as a matter of fact prevented these questions from ever arising in its administration, was the technical rule of *venue*, which divided all actions into two exhaustive classes, *local* and *transitory*. Local actions were those connected in any way with the soil, which it was always necessary to bring in the country where the cause of action arose, and the distinction arose in the following way. By the old Common Law the jurors were to be summoned from the particular place or neighbourhood (*vicinetum, visne*) where the facts happened, it being then thought highly desirable that they should be cognizant of their own knowledge,^(a) apart from the evidence, of the matters in dispute. It was therefore necessary, for the guidance of the sheriff in executing the writ of *venire facias*, that the pleadings should show what the place or neighbourhood was,^(b) and the term “laying the venue” was given to the required allegation. But in course of time the jury began to be summoned no longer as witnesses, but as judges, to receive the facts from the testimony of others judicially examined before them,^(c) and the necessity of their being summoned from the *vicinetum* where the facts occurred—in other words, the necessity for that reason of the *venue* being truly laid—ceased. It was from this time that the distinction between local and transitory actions began; the former including all matters necessarily involving the idea of a certain place or part of the soil, the latter those which affected the person, or the movables which follow the person, and which might therefore have happened anywhere. With regard to local actions, it was held that if the *venue* alleged in the margin of the pleadings was untrue laid—*i.e.*, if on trial the action appeared to be connected with the soil of some place outside the county

(a) Co. Litt. by Harg. 125 a, n. (1).

(b) *Ilderton v. Ilderton*, 2 H. Bl. 161; Co. Litt. 125 a, b.

(c) Stephen on Pleading, 7th ed. p. 235.

of the *venue* as laid—the variance was fatal, and the plaintiff failed. If, on the other hand, the facts of the action were *transitory*—i.e., such as might have occurred anywhere—the fact that the *venue*, as laid, was not the place where they were actually proved to have happened, was immaterial.(a) The consequence was that any contract, not directly connected with the soil, could be sued on in an English court without regard to the place where it arose or was to be performed, if the defendant could be only rendered amenable to the court's process, and service could be effected upon him according to its regulations.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contracts—
Jurisdiction.

The former practice of the Common Law and Chancery Courts differed in several essential points. At common law, personal service within the realm was necessary until 1852. The Common Law Procedure Act of that year permitted service abroad (except in Scotland or Ireland) in actions against both British subjects (s. 18) and foreigners (b) (s. 19), when there was a cause of action which arose within the jurisdiction, or in respect of the breach of a contract made within the jurisdiction; and the Court or a judge, on being satisfied by affidavit of these facts, and that reasonable efforts were made to effect service of the writ, which had come to the defendant's knowledge, were empowered to dispense with service altogether.(c) It will be seen that the limitation confining this statutory power to cases in which there was a cause of action which arose within the jurisdiction, or in respect of a breach of a contract made within the jurisdiction, may be construed in two ways: first, as confining the statutory power in respect of actions on contract to cases where the contract was made within the jurisdiction; and secondly, as including cases where the contract was made abroad, but the breach took place in England—this second construction regarding the *breach* of a contract as a "cause

Effect of
Common Law
Procedure
Acta.

(a) *Mostyn v. Fabrigas*, 1 Sm. L. C. 607, and cases cited in note. So for torts to realty abroad, no action lay in England; *secus*, as to personal wrongs, *Skinner v. East India Co.*, cited in Cowper, 167, 168.

(b) Foreigners resident in Scotland or Ireland might be served there, though British subjects were exempt: Day's C. L. P. Acta, p. 58, n.

(c) *Binet v. Piot*, 28 L. J. Ex. 244.

PART III.
ACTS.
 CAP. VIII.
Contracts—
Jurisdiction.

of action" within the meaning of the first part of the limitation. Upon this question the Courts at Westminster at first held divided views; the Queen's Bench adhering to the view that it was insufficient that the breach of a contract should take place within the jurisdiction, if the contract itself was made abroad,(a) while the Courts of Common Pleas and Exchequer acted upon the opposite construction.(b) In consequence of these conflicting decisions a conference of the judges was ultimately held upon the subject, and the view taken by the Court of Common Pleas in *Jackson v. Spittall* was accepted as binding once for all; (c) so that according to this, the latest authority, a plaintiff was entitled under the Common Law Procedure Act, 1852, to serve the defendant abroad, if he could show that the contract was either made or broken within the jurisdiction.

The subject, however, is now regulated by Order XI. rr. 1-7, of the Rules made under the Judicature Acts, 1873, 1875, which is intended by the Legislature to be exhaustive, and to supersede the former practice.(d) By r. 1 service out of the jurisdiction may be ordered wherever (*inter alia*) "the action is founded on any breach or alleged breach within the jurisdiction of any contract, wherever made, which, according to the terms thereof, ought to be performed within the jurisdiction, unless the defendant is domiciled or ordinarily resident in Scotland or Ireland." Under this rule the *breach* is the only essential; and it has been held that an order was rightly made limiting the plaintiff's right of action after service was effected to the subject-matter in respect of which the writ could be properly served under this rule.(e) The rule is therefore one dealing with jurisdiction, not with procedure. There

(a) *Allhusen v. Margarejo*, L. R. 3 Q. B. 340; *Cherry v. Thompson*, L. R. 7 Q. B. 573; and see *Sichel v. Borch*, 2 H. & C. 954.

(b) *Jackson v. Spittall*, L. R. 5 C. P. 542; *Durham v. Spence*, L. R. 6 Ex. 46; *Vaughan v. Weldon*, L. R. 10 C. P. 48.

(c) *Vaughan v. Weldon*, L. R. 10 C. P. 48.

(d) *Re Eager*, 22 Ch. D. 86; Supreme Court Rules, 1883, Order XI. r. 1 (e).

(e) *Thomas v. Duchess of Hamilton*, 17 Q. B. D. 592. Cf. *Harris v. Fleming*, 13 Ch. D. 208.

must be a breach within the jurisdiction of a contract which by its terms ought to be performed within the jurisdiction; but it is not, of course, necessary that this should appear in express words. It must follow from the language. Thus, where an act has to be done by a person resident within the jurisdiction, or a payment made, the contract for the act or payment is within the rule.(a) But it is not sufficient that damages should accrue within the jurisdiction.(b)

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.
*Contracts—
Jurisdiction.*

The exception as to defendants domiciled or ordinarily resident in Scotland or Ireland is not based on any principle of international law, but is due to the energetic guardianship by Scotch and Irish members of the interests of their constituencies. There can be no reason in the nature of things why a Scotchman who has contracted to pay money in London should not be as amenable to the process of the English Courts as a Frenchman in a like position would be; but it has already been seen that under the Common Law Procedure Acts there was no power of serving Scotchmen or Irishmen in Scotland or Ireland, although foreigners in those countries could be so served; and as against Scotchmen and Irishmen, Parliament has never given this extended process to the English Court.(c) It is obvious that the words of the exception in the rule would prevent service of an English writ in France upon a Scotchman temporarily or even ordinarily resident in France, provided that he retained his Scotch domicile—a consequence which was probably not contemplated, as the Scotch grievance was based upon the hardship of taking Scotch defendants away from their own courts. The effect of s. 62 of the Companies Act, 1862,

(a) *Reynolds v. Coleman*, 36 Ch. D. 453; *Roly v. Snaefell Co.*, 20 Q. B. D. 152; *Daniell v. Oakley*, 28 Sol. Journ. 477.

(b) *Shearman v. Findlay*, 32 W. R. 122. This has been held otherwise under the Rules of 1875, which were superseded by those cited. See also *Moritz v. Stephan*, 36 W. R. 779; and, for examples, see *Call v. Oppenheim*, 1 Times Law Rep. 623; *Hassall v. Lawrence*, 4 Times Law Rep. 23; *Watson v. Dreyfus*, *ibid.* 148; *Nathan v. Seitz*, *ibid.* 670; *Barrow v. Myers*, *ibid.* 441; *Wancke v. Wingien*, 5 Times Law Rep. 696.

(c) *Watkins v. Scottish Imperial Co.*, 23 Q. B. D. 285; *Jones v. Scottish Accident Co.*, 17 Q. B. D. 421; *Lenden v. Anderson*, 12 Q. B. D. 56.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contracts—
Jurisdiction.

which provides for service generally upon companies by post, is to make the same principle applicable to Scotch and Irish corporations.(a)

The order giving leave to serve a writ abroad is made on affidavit (Order XI. r. 4), and it is directed that the order shall limit a time after service or notice within which the defendant is to enter appearance (r. 5). When the defendant is neither a British subject nor in British dominions, notice of the writ is to be served on him, and not the writ itself (r. 6). And service of a writ on a foreigner not in British dominions is a nullity, not a mere irregularity.(b) Foreign corporations are for this purpose in the same position as foreign natural persons, and should be served with notice of the writ only.(c) If the defendant is a British subject residing abroad, the writ itself may be served.(d) An "originating summons" cannot be served out of the jurisdiction under this Order,(e) nor a petition for restitution of conjugal rights,(f) nor a summons to tax costs.(g) Leave has been given to serve abroad petitions under the Trustee Acts,(h) but leave has been refused under the Settled Estates Act.(i)

Scotland and
Ireland—
Order XI. r. 2.

It should be noted that when leave is asked under Order XI. r. 1, to serve a writ in Scotland or Ireland, if it shall appear to the Court or judge that there

(a) *Watkins v. Scottish Imperial Co.*, 23 Q. B. D. 285, per Mathew, J.; *Wood v. Anderston Foundry Co.*, 36 W. R. 918.

(b) *Hewetson v. Fabre*, 21 Q. B. D. 6; *Field v. Bennett*, 28 Sol. Journ. 477; *Westman v. Aktiebolaget, &c.*, 1 Ex. D. 237.

(c) See cases cited in the Annual Practice, note to Order XI. r. 6. Under the C. L. P. Acts, foreign corporations could not be served abroad: *Ingate v. Austrian Lloyd's*, 4 C. B. N. S. 704.

(d) *Great Australian Co. v. Martin*, 5 Ch. D. 1. This has been ordered even when the defendant was a woman, English by nationality, who was married to a foreigner: *Padley v. Camphausen*, 10 Ch. D. 551. See, as to personal jurisdiction under this order in respect of movable property, *ante*, p. 228.

(e) *Re Bugfield*, 32 Ch. D. 123.

(f) *Chichester v. Chichester*, 10 P. D. 186.

(g) *Ex parte Brandon*, 34 W. R. 352.

(h) *In re Harvey's Trusts*, 10 Ch. 275, and cases there cited; *Re Bonelli's Trusts*, 18 Eq. 655.

(i) *Re Alaburn*, 22 W. R. 752. See *Re Naylor's Estate*, 28 L. T. Rep. N. S. 18; and under the Companies Act, s. 165, see *In re British Imperial Corporation*, 5 Ch. D. 749. As to procedure for revocation of patent, see *Re Drummond*, 43 Ch. D. 80.

may be a concurrent remedy in Scotland or Ireland (as the case may be), the Court or judge is given a discretion in granting or refusing the order, having regard to the comparative cost and convenience of proceeding in the two countries; particularly in cases coming under the Sheriffs' Courts or Small Debts Courts in Scotland, or the Civil Bill Courts in Ireland (Order XI. r. 2).

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.
*Contracts—
Jurisdiction.*

In addition to the power of ordinary service abroad in any action founded on a breach in England of any contract which ought to be there performed (Order XI. r. 1 (e)), the same power is given by another sub-section of the rule, (c), in all cases "where any relief is sought against any person domiciled or ordinarily resident within the jurisdiction." This would obviously permit service abroad in many cases of contracts to be performed abroad; and, inasmuch as service would be idle if the action was not to be entertained, it would seem to imply a jurisdiction based on "ordinary residence" within the jurisdiction. If the words "domiciled" and "ordinarily resident" are not merely tautologous (which can hardly be supposed) they must mean different things; and the anomalous exception affecting Scotchmen and Irishmen in sub-s. (e) of the rule may lead to an embarrassing conflict. The case may readily happen of a man who is "ordinarily resident" in England, but who retains a Scotch domicile, and is temporarily present in Scotland. Can leave be obtained to serve on him a writ in an action based on contract to be performed in England? According to Order XI. r. 1 (c), it can, because relief is sought against a person "ordinarily resident" within the jurisdiction. According to Order XI. r. 1 (e), it cannot, because he is domiciled in Scotland. The true answer would appear to be in the affirmative, on the ground that the exception as to Scotchmen only cuts down sub-s. (e); and that if the case can be brought within (c), which is a distinct sub-section, the exception does not apply to it.

Service abroad
on persons do-
micated or resi-
dent—Order
XI. r. 1 (c), (e).

It has been held that a company, having its head office in Scotland, with branch offices in England, and a chief

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contracts—
Jurisdiction.*

Service abroad
on necessary
and proper
parties to
action against
person within
jurisdiction—
Order XI. r. 1
(g). •

office for England in London, is not “domiciled or ordinarily resident” in England within this rule.(a)

Lastly, service abroad is allowed under Order XI. r. 1 (g), in cases where “any person out of the jurisdiction is a necessary or proper party to an action properly brought against some other person duly served within the jurisdiction.” Under this rule it has been held that service abroad may be ordered against a person who is substantially a defendant.(b) Thus, in an action against defendants in London for breach of warranty of authority, the foreign principals, who had repudiated the contract on the ground that it was unauthorised, were held to be “necessary or proper parties.”(c) So, in an action on a promissory note against an indorser in England, the maker in New York was held to be properly served within this rule.(d) To obtain leave under this rule, it must be shown on affidavit at the time of the application that there is a defendant who has been duly served within the jurisdiction.(e)

The question of jurisdiction has been so far considered only with reference to the English rules as to service out of the territorial jurisdiction. The actual presence of a defendant within the territorial jurisdiction has hitherto been considered sufficient to entitle the English Courts to entertain any suit against him which was not concerned with foreign immovables, or otherwise required a local *venue* abroad.(f) Even in the case of an action on a contract affecting foreign land, it has already been shown that a decree has been frequently made *in personam*, certainly where the defendant is justiciable to the English Court by

(a) *Jones v. Scottish Accident Insurance Co.*, 17 Q. B. D. 421; 55 L. J. Q. B. 415.

(b) *Yorkshire Tannery Co. v. Eglinton*, 54 L. J. Ch. 81; *Spiller v. Bristol*, 13 Q. B. D. 96.

(c) *Massey v. Heynes*, 21 Q. B. D. 330.

(d) *Sykes v. Scholfield*, 28 Sol. Journ. 477. For other examples see *S.S. Thanemore v. Thompson*, 52 L. T. 552; *British Marine, &c., Co. v. M'Innes*, 31 Sol. Journ. 95; *Re Lane*, 55 L. T. 149.

(e) *Yorkshire Tannery Co. v. Eglinton*, 54 L. J. Ch. 81. See, for another instance, *Jenney v. Mackintosh*, 33 Ch. D. 595.

(f) See note to *Mostyn v. Fabrigas*, 1 Sm. L. C. 658; and cf. language of Malins, V.C., in *Matthæi v. Galitzin*, L. R. 18 Eq. 340; *Davis v. Park*, 8 Ch. 862, n.

domicil, possibly even when the contract was made in England only.(a) With respect to contracts not affecting foreign immovables, the English theory of jurisdiction is perhaps best seen from the view taken by the Courts of the validity of foreign judgments. According to Fry, J., a defendant in a foreign action is considered bound by the judgment—(1) where he is a subject of the foreign State where it was obtained; (2) where he was resident there when the action began; (3) where he selected the *forum*; (4) where he voluntarily appeared; (5) where he has contracted to submit himself to the *forum*.(b) The use of the word “resident” is always more or less ambiguous; (c) but whether or not it is intended as something less than “domiciled,” it is clear, at any rate, that a foreign Court will be considered as entitled to entertain any action or contract against those persons who are domiciled and present within its limits. It is difficult to see any sufficient reason for attributing jurisdiction with respect to contracts to the domicil of the defendant; and it seems probable, therefore, that something less than domicil is intended by the word “resident,” especially as the same ambiguity occurs in the English rule as to service out of the jurisdiction in cases “*where any relief is sought against any person domiciled or ordinarily resident within the jurisdiction*.”(d) The whole subject is one of difficulty, and may perhaps be best summarised by saying that, while there are cases in which mere *presence* within the territorial limit is spoken of as sufficient to give the English Court jurisdiction,(e) the stronger word “*residence*” is usually employed when the jurisdiction of a foreign Court is under discussion.

The fact that a foreigner is a claimant in an interpleader issue has been recently held insufficient to justify the

(a) *Penn v. Baltimore*, 1 Ves. Sen. 44; 2 Tud. L. C. pp. 939-945 (notes); *ante*, Chap. VI.

(b) *Rousillon v. Rousillon*, 14 Ch. D. 351, 371. Cf. *infra*, Chap. XI.

(c) It is obvious, for instance, that in this case it may mean at least three things—(a) *domiciled and actually present within the jurisdiction*; (b) *domiciled, but not present*; (c) *present within the jurisdiction, but not domiciled there*. Whether (c) includes mere casual presence is again open to argument.

(d) Order xi. (Judicature Acts), r. 1 (c); *ante*, p. 329.

(e) *Mostyn v. Fabrigas*, 1 Sm. L. C. 658 (notes).

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contracts—
Jurisdiction.

Court in making him a defendant to a counter-claim arising out of contract, although ordinary terms might be imposed upon him on granting the interpleader issue.(a)

Though service in England according to the ordinary practice is required in every case in which an order for service out of the jurisdiction cannot be obtained under Order XI. r. 1, yet the parties may contract that service in a different mode shall bind them. Thus, where in a contract with a French company it was stipulated that the agreement should be construed by English law, and the French parties submitted to the jurisdiction of the Court, and appointed persons in England to be served with process on their behalf, it was held that such service was good, the parties having thus contracted themselves out of the ordinary English rules.(b)

Abolition of
rules of *venue*.

The restriction arising from the necessity of a local *venue*, in actions concerning foreign realty, has now been abolished by the Judicature Acts (sched. Order xxxvi. r. 1), and it would seem no longer controls the jurisdiction of the High Court. *Whitaker v. Forbes* (c) was a case in which the Judicature Acts did not apply, inasmuch as it was commenced before their operation, though argued in the Court of Appeal after that date, and, in giving judgment, Cairns, L.C., suggested the probability that the alteration in the law of *venue* introduced by the Judicature Acts might extend the jurisdiction to some actions which the Courts under the old law had no power to entertain. That was an action for a rent-charge issuing out of land in Australia, as to which the authorities cited to show that the *venue* was local were conclusive,(d) and the decision proceeded, therefore, strictly upon the technical ground that an action in which the *venue* was local could not be maintained here unless that *venue* could be laid within the jurisdiction. The observations of Lord Cairns were after-

(a) *Eschger v. Morrison*, 6 Times Law Rep. 145.

(b) *Tharsis, &c., Co. v. Société des Metaux*, 5 Times Law Rep. 618. Cf. *Mason v. Comptoir d'Escompte*, 23 Q. B. D. 519, and *Russell v. Cambefort*, (C. A.) 23 Q. B. D. 526.

(c) L. R. 1 C. P. D. 51.

(d) *Thomas v. Sylvester*, L. R. 8 Q. B. 368.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contracts—
Jurisdiction.*

wards referred to in a case commenced under the Judicature Acts, and to which the new rules abolishing *venue* therefore applied. The claim stated that the plaintiffs and defendants were each of them limited companies with registered offices in London, and that the action was brought for rent of a railway station in Buenos Ayres (into possession of which the defendants were put by the plaintiffs), and for part of the cost of constructing lines of railway and approaches to the station.(a) The distinction as to *venue* no longer existing, it was not directly decided that the case in question was local, and that the Judicature Acts had therefore actually enlarged the jurisdiction; but it appeared to be assumed that it would be insufficient to oust the jurisdiction of the Courts to show merely that the rules of *venue* would formerly have prevented the action from being brought. The litigant companies both being English corporations by statute, with registered offices in London, no difficulty had arisen with respect to the service of the writ; and the only question argued was, whether the fact that the railway and premises were situate in Buenos Ayres, and that the Argentine Republic had assumed jurisdiction over the plaintiffs' claim, was sufficient to prevent an English Court, according to the comity of nations, from taking cognizance of it. It was held insufficient, on the ground that no *exclusive* jurisdiction belonged to, or had been assumed by, the Courts of the Argentine Republic, and that the law of nations did not restrain a tribunal here from dealing with a contract properly brought before it, by reason of its relating to immovable property situate in a foreign country. There are, in fact, two stages of any action at which the defence that the contract to which it relates is a foreign one may be raised. It may be raised either by opposing the application for leave to serve the writ abroad, when the defendant is not in England, or on the pleadings by demurrer.(b) It may also, of course, be left for argu-

(a) *Buenos Ayres and Ensenada Port Ry. Co. v. Northern Ry. Co. of Buenos Ayres*, L. R. 2 Q. B. D. 210.

(b) See, however, *Preston v. Lamont*, L. R. 1 Ex. D. 361.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contracts—
Jurisdiction.

ment upon motion for judgment, or otherwise after verdict, but the question so raised will be exactly the same as that involved in the demurrer. First, as to the service of the writ, it has been already shown that the discretionary power of the Courts is limited and conferred by Order XI. r. 1, of the Rules of the Supreme Court; and it is submitted that the discretion exercised under that Order by a judge at chambers should refuse leave to serve abroad even in cases where the facts are strictly within the terms of the Order, if it is clear that the jurisdiction of an English Court does not properly extend to the subject-matter. In other words, it should be governed by the same rules as those recognised and followed by the Court of Chancery before the Judicature Acts came into operation. Secondly, with regard to the cases in which the defence may subsequently be raised upon the pleadings, that course was adopted as the most suitable one in *Buenos Ayres and Ensenada Port Ry. Co. v. Northern Ry. Co. of Buenos Ayres*,^(a) but in *Preston v. Lamont* ^(b) a defence substantially objecting to the jurisdiction was struck out on the ground that the question was one for chambers. It should be noticed, however, that in the case last cited part of the statement of defence which was disallowed was virtually a denial that the facts of the case came within the terms of Order XI. r. 1, at all, so that the judge's order for service beyond the jurisdiction was alleged to have been wrongly made; and there can be little doubt that many cases may arise in which, though Order XI. r. 1, is strictly applicable, the general principles of law and the comity of nations would direct an English tribunal to decline jurisdiction. Such, for example, are obviously those actions in which it is attempted to try the title to, or the right to the possession of, foreign realty, with regard to which it has been shown above ^(c) that the Court of Chancery never assumed jurisdiction to act directly upon foreign land, but only indirectly through the consciences of

^(a) L. R. 2 Q. B. D. 210.^(b) L. R. 1 Ex. D. 361.^(c) *Suprà*, p. 160 *seq.*

its own justiciables. The rules of Chancery on this point being based on the principles of the law of nations,^(a) and having nothing to do with the Common Law technicality as to *venue*, remain unaltered by the Judicature Act, being only modified, at the stage of the service of the writ of summons, by the additional limitations imposed and defined in Order XI. r. 1.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.
Contracts—
Jurisdiction.

SUMMARY.

JURISDICTION ON CONTRACTS.

The jurisdiction of English Courts to deal with contracts in which a foreign element existed was originally based on rules of practice alone; and the distinctions made by Roman law between the *forum actoris*, the *forum rei*, and the *forum rei sitæ*, *rei gestæ*, or *rei solvendæ* were ignored. The test of *venue*, provided that personal service could be effected on the defendant within the realm, was the only one applied in the Common Law Courts; whilst the Court of Chancery, which was unrestricted by the rules of *venue*, had a discretionary power of ordering service without the realm in any suit. Actions for the possession of foreign immovables were excluded from all Courts; from the Common Law Courts by the rules of *venue*, and from the Court of Chancery on principle.

The Common Law Procedure Act, 1852, gave a similar power of ordering foreign service to the Common Law Courts, where the cause of action arose within the jurisdiction, or in respect of a breach of a contract made within the jurisdiction—a provision which was, after a judicial conflict, construed to include the case of a contract made abroad, but broken within the realm.

The provisions of the Judicature Acts, 1873 and 1875, give a similar discretionary power of ordering foreign service—(a) where the whole subject-matter of the action is land situate within the jurisdiction; (b) where any contract affecting land situate within the jurisdiction is

(a) See Story, § 544, and *suprà*, p. 175.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

sought to be construed, rectified, set aside, or enforced; (c) where any relief is sought against any person domiciled or ordinarily resident within the jurisdiction; (d) where the action is founded on any breach within the jurisdiction of any contract wherever made (with an exception in favour of persons domiciled or resident in Scotland or Ireland). The restrictions arising from the rules of *venue* are abolished altogether.

p. 331.

A foreign tribunal is regarded by the English tribunals as having jurisdiction to entertain an action based on contract against any person who is domiciled (perhaps only *resident*) and present within its territorial limits.

p. 334.

Notwithstanding the abolition of *venue*, actions for the possession of or property in foreign immovables will not, it would seem, be now entertained, any more than they could have been in the Court of Chancery under the old practice. The mere fact, however, that a contract relates to foreign immovables will not restrain an English Court from dealing with it; and the Court of Chancery will of course indirectly affect foreign immovables by acting in *personam*, as heretofore.

(ii.) *Law by which the Contract is Governed.*—The *lex contractus* has always been an ambiguous term, which jurists have interpreted either as the *lex loci celebrationis* or *solutionis*, the law of the place where the contract was entered into, or of that where it was to be performed, according to the tendency of their peculiar views. A little consideration will show that, assuming that the parties entering into the contract are full of capacity to do so by every law, and that no law is transgressed or intended to be transgressed by the subject-matter of their agreement, their will is, or should be, absolutely unfettered. They should in theory be able to contract themselves out of or into any law they please, and the only question for a tribunal called upon to enforce the contract should be, By what law did the parties intend that their rights should be defined and governed? Accord-

ing to this reasoning, the intention of the parties should be deferred to when interpreting and enforcing a contract in all respects except two—the question of their capacity to contract, and the question of the legality of that for which they have contracted. An examination of the cases in detail will show how far these theoretical principles have been adopted.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Law of the
Contract.

(a) *Capacity to Contract*.—With regard to the capacity to contract, which is generally regarded as the natural consequence of adult age, it has been said above (a) that the English authorities are still discordant. The only express decision in respect of a mercantile or ordinary contract has been that of Lord Eldon at Nisi Prius (b) in favour of the *lex loci celebrationis*, though Lord Stowell seems to have inclined in the same direction, (c) and Sir Cresswell Cresswell in a more modern case used general language to the like effect. (d) On such a matter the question of intention can obviously have no weight, and the limit of age, which the English law has imposed for the benefit and protection of its own subjects, ought surely to be conclusive within the limits of its jurisdiction. It would clearly be inequitable, for example, that a domiciled subject of Prussia or of some other continental State which regards legal majority as postponed until the age of twenty-five, should attempt to evade the performance of a contract entered into in England when he was twenty-four by the plea of infancy. The reverse case of an Englishman at the age of twenty-four making a contract in Prussia, and afterwards repudiating it on the same plea, has not occurred; but the other party to the contract, who would almost inevitably be Prussian by nationality or domicile, would necessarily be taken to know his own laws; and, though he might complain that he had been defrauded, could not deny that the fraud ought to have been foreseen. It is of course possible to imagine the case of two English-

Capacity
governed by
lex loci.

(a) *Supra*, p. 46, *seq.*

(b) *Male v. Roberts*, 3 Esp. 163.

(c) *Buding v. Smith*, 2 Hagg. Cons. 389.

(d) *Sinonis v. Maillac*, 2 Sw. & Tr. 67.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Capacity to
contract.*

men transiently present in a country whose law regarded them as infants, although both had passed the English limit of twenty-one years, and there entering into a contract in ignorance or in contempt of the provisions of the *lex loci*. No English Court has been called upon to decide upon the validity of a plea of infancy offered under such circumstances, but it is difficult to think that it would be allowed to prevail.

Capacity—
lex domicilii.

Notwithstanding these considerations and authorities, a recent *dictum* of the Court of Appeal in the case of *Sottomayor v. De Barros* has unsettled the whole subject, if, indeed, it has not gone further, and established the right of the *lex domicilii* to decide all questions of capacity for every purpose. *Sottomayor v. De Barros* was a case which turned upon the so-called capacity of two domiciled Portuguese, who, being first cousins, were forbidden to marry by Portuguese law, to contract marriage in England; and the Court of Appeal held that the law of Portugal must prevail. It had been decided by Sir R. Phillimore in the court below, following the stricter precedents of English law, that the law of England, the place where the contract of marriage was entered into, had been satisfied, and that the marriage was consequently valid. The case, however, was one in which considerations of natural humanity and pity called for a dissolution of the union, and the Court of Appeal, consisting of James, Baggallay, and Cotton, L.JJ., reversed his decision. There appears to have been no argument on the question of capacity generally, nor is it considered in the judgment with reference to anything but marriage, but the judgment does state it to be "a well-recognised principle of law" that the question of personal capacity to enter into any contract is to be decided by the law of domicil. How far this *dictum* can be regarded as applicable to that incapacity which arises from minority it may be difficult to determine; but if, with regard to that incapacity it is "a well-recognised principle of law" that the law of domicil is to exclude

the law of the place of contract, it has become so since Story wrote,^(a) and since Lord Eldon sat at Nisi Prius.^(b)

It is in truth an error to regard the so-called contract of marriage as something to be governed by the ordinary rules which the law of contract embodies; and the capacity to enter into the marriage contract may be regarded quite logically as entirely distinct from that capacity to contract, in the ordinary sense of the word, to which the *dictum* of Lord Eldon in *Male v. Roberts* referred. The question of the capacity of a man and woman to marry, and of the consequent validity of their marriage, is one which essentially concerns the law of their domicil, because it is in the country of the matrimonial domicil that they intend to spend their married life. This is a necessary conclusion, because, if they intend to spend their married life in any other place, and have married in any place in which they are not domiciled, they have, in fact, quitted their domicil without an *animus revertendi*, and lost it or changed it for another. And if the acquisition of a new domicil has not been so complete as to divest them of the old, then, in the eye of the law, they *do* intend to return to the man's original domicil or home. It being, therefore, clear that the country of the matrimonial domicil must be taken as the place where the man and woman intend to spend their married life, it follows that the law of that country, and of no other, is the law to which the validity, legality, or morality of their marriage is a matter

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Capacity to
contract.

Contract of
marriage—
characteris-
tics of.

(a) Story, § 103; Burge, For. Law, i. c. 4, p. 132; Westlake, Priv. Int. Law, § 401; *Male v. Roberts*, 3 Esp. 163; *Sinonin v. Maillac*, 2 Sw. & Tr. 67; *Buding v. Smith*, 2 Hagg. Cons. 389.

(b) It may be desirable to quote the language of Hannen, J., with reference to this *dictum*, as some justification of the attempt in the text to criticise the judgment of the Court of Appeal in *Sottomayor v. De Barros*: "It is of course competent to the Court of Appeal to lay down a principle which, if it formed the basis of a judgment of that Court, must, unless it should be disclaimed by the House of Lords, be binding in all future cases. But I trust that I may be permitted without disrespect to say that the doctrine thus laid down has not hitherto been 'well recognised.' On the contrary, it appears to me to be a novel principle, for which, up to the present time there has been no English authority. What authority there is seems to me to be the other way": *Sottomayor v. De Barros* (2), 5 P. D. 100.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Capacity to
contract.*

of concern.(a) It is true that this argument, if stretched, would almost go to the length of excluding the law of the place of celebration with respect to the forms and solemnities of the ceremony; but it will be shown hereafter (b) that these matters are universally referred to the *lex loci celebrationis*, for the purpose, if for no other, of securing that the formalities necessary to bind the parties shall be duly performed in the sight of the only law which has at the moment of celebration the right to control them. Further, all that the principle of the interest of the law of the matrimonial domicile is cited for here, is to show that there is at any rate one important distinction between the considerations applicable to the so-called contract of marriage, and a contract in the ordinary commercial sense. The only marriage contract which belongs to this latter class is the marriage contract by which husband and wife dispose of their rights in each other's property, a subject which has already been treated of.(c) And there is another distinction between contracts of commerce and contracts of marriage, closely connected with the former one, and arising out of it. It is true that husband and wife enter into an agreement, just as vendor and purchaser do, by which they mutually bind themselves to do something in consideration of the mutual promises then made, but there the analogy ends. The fulfilment or non-fulfilment of the promise of vendor and purchaser, for example, is a matter which is of no public interest whatever; and that either party, on making default, should plead such defences as infancy or the Statute of Limitations is an evil by which no one is legally or even morally wronged but the other party to the agreement. The public, or society (by whichever name the same thing is called), suffers no injury at all, except in the sense that an injury to the individual is an injury to the State, and is therefore prevented, as far as possible, by the law. On the other

(a) "Locus matrimonii contracti non tam is est, ubi contractus nuptialis initus est, quam in quo contrahentes matrimonium exercere voluerunt."—Huber, *Conf. Leg.*, i. tit. 3, s. 10.

(b) *Infra*, p. 352.

(c) *Ante*, p. 315.

hand, it is of the greatest moral and social importance to the public interests of every country, for reasons which need not be specified, that those persons who live together within its limits in what they call matrimony, should be married in fact. It cannot be said that the breach or repudiation of a contract within a town is a social or public evil in at all the same sense that the illegitimate connection of the sexes is so; and, at any rate, the breach of a contract is no more a public evil in the place where it is broken than in the place where it was made, in the frequent cases where the contracting parties are not both resident or even present in the place of performance. The crowning anomaly which results from the attempt to regard marriage as a contract in the legal sense of the term is to be found in the fact that it is a contract, if a contract at all, for the breach of which no action can lie, and no damages be recovered.(a)

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.
Capacity to contract.

The considerations urged above are perhaps the most obvious reasons why the principles which the Court of Appeal have decided in *Sottomayor v. De Barros* (b) are proper to decide the question of the capacity of the parties to a marriage, should not be extended, as some passages of the judgment in that case seem to imply they might be, to the question of the capacity of the parties to a commercial contract. What the capacity to marry, or to marry a particular person, really is, will be best seen by reviewing the decisions on the subject, of which *Sottomayor v. De Barros* is the last.

The first case of any importance in which the question of the capacity of the parties to a marriage appears to have arisen in an English court was that of *Ruding v. Smith*, (c) argued in the Consistory Court of London before Lord Stowell in 1821. The marriage in this case had been celebrated at the Cape of Good Hope, by the chaplain of the British forces then in occupation of the colony, between British subjects, whose domicil must b

(a) The breach of a promise to marry is obviously a different thing.
(b) L. R. 3 P. D. 1.
(c) 2 Hagg. Cons. 371.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Capacity to
contract.

assumed to have been British also. The Dutch law at that time was the only established law in the colony, and its continuance had been formally sanctioned, so far as the inhabitants were concerned, by the capitulation. Two objections were taken to the marriage, though scarcely distinguished in the argument—first, that the mere *formalities* required by the Dutch law as the *lex loci celebrationis* had not been complied with; and, secondly, that the parties were not, according to the same law, of an age at which a marriage could be contracted at all without the consent of parents and guardians, which had not been obtained. Lord Stowell held that the English law was to prevail on both points, on the exceptional ground that the country was under British legal dominion except so far as the capitulation sanctioned the continuance of certain privileges to the conquered, and that the marriage in question had been celebrated between British subjects with the countenance of British authority and British ministration. It may almost be said that Lord Stowell's judgment amounted to a decision that under the peculiar circumstances of the case, (a) and between those parties, the *lex loci* was British, and therefore coincided with the *lex domicilii*. But the second question, being almost identical with that which arose in *Sinonin v. Maillac* forty years later, would have raised, if the *lex loci* for those parties had been held to be Dutch, a direct conflict between the *lex loci* and the *lex domicilii* on the question of capacity; and it is therefore interesting to see how Lord Stowell treated it by anticipation. Assuming a case of a marriage in Holland between British subjects domiciled in England, he asks whether an English Court would hold it void because the Dutch law referred to above imposed on the parties an incapacity to enter into it? and intimates a clear opinion that the requirements of the Dutch law would not in such a case be deferred to here. (b) It is nevertheless plain that the two questions of the formalities of celebration and the capacity to celebrate were

(a) *Vide* 2 Hagg. Cons. 390.

(b) At p. 389.

not at that stage of his decision clearly separated in his mind, inasmuch as, after referring to the cases decided on the mode of celebration, he expressly guards himself against being supposed to accept Huber's doctrine as to personal capacity impressed once for all by the domiciliary law. "I do not mean to say that Huber is correct in laying down as universally true, that '*personales qualitates, alicui in certo loco jure impressas, ubique circumferri, et personam comitari*'—that being of age in his own country, a man is of age in every other country, be the law of majority in that country what it may." It can hardly be doubted that what the Court of Appeal in *Sottomayor v. De Barros* (a) declared to be a "well-recognised principle of law" with regard to capacity, was not recognised as established by Lord Stowell in 1821.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.

Capacity to
contract.

In *Conway v. Beazley* (b) (1831) it was decided, according to the head-note, that the *lex loci contractus* will not prevail when either of the contracting parties is under a legal incapacity by the law of the domicil. Dr. Lushington, in his judgment, confined himself to the case of the same domicil being common to both man and woman, and no light is therefore to be gathered from his decision upon the question, as to which there is obviously room for argument, whether the law of the husband's domicil would be followed in opposition to that of the wife, in a case (for example) where her law forbade, and his permitted, the marriage, or *vice versa*. In comparing the personal capacity or incapacity to marry to the *status* of legitimacy which was so fully discussed in *Doe d. Birt-whistle v. Vardill*, (c) Dr. Lushington undoubtedly went far towards laying the foundation of the decision in *Sottomayor v. De Barros*. It should nevertheless be remembered that the "capacity to marry," which was in question in *Conway v. Beazley*, was simply dependent upon the answer to be given to the inquiry whether the husband was or was not already married at the time of the marriage which it was sought to annul; and it was conceded that

Conway v.
Beazley.

(a) L. R. 3 P. D. 1. (b) 3 Hagg. Eccl. 639. (c) 5 B. & C. 438.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Capacity to
contract.**Sinonin v.
Maillac.*

he was already married at that time, unless a Scotch divorce was to be held, in the eye of the English law, competent to dissolve a marriage previously celebrated in England.(a)

Neither of the above cases appears to have been cited in the case of *Sinonin v. Maillac*,(b) and the question of the conflict between the *lex loci* and the *lex domicilii* as to capacity was there treated by Sir Cresswell Cresswell almost, if not quite, as a case of the first impression. The marriage which it was there sought to dissolve was one celebrated in England between French subjects domiciled in France, without the formal consents required at their respective ages by French law. In the judgment delivered after deliberation there is again authority directly opposed to the *dictum* of the Court of Appeal in *Sottomayor v. De Barros*,(c) that it is a "well-recognised principle of law that the question of personal capacity to enter into any contract is to be decided by the law of domicile." Sir Cresswell Cresswell certainly did not recognise it in 1860, as he says, "*In general, the personal competency or incompetency of individuals to contract has been held to depend upon the law of the place where the contract was made.*" But it was and is contended that such rule does not extend to contracts of marriage, and that parties are with reference to them bound by the law of their domicile. This question, of so much importance in all civilised communities, has been largely discussed by jurists of all nations, but they all apply their observations to controversies arising, not in the countries where the marriage was celebrated, but in other countries where it is brought in dispute, and of which the parties were domiciled subjects."(d) The conclusion which Sir Cresswell Cresswell came to, after examining such authorities as were cited before him, was that the *lex loci* must prevail in this as in other cases of

(a) *Lolley's Case*, Russ. & Ry. 237; *M'Carthy v. Decoix*, 2 Russ. & My. 614; *Warrender v. Warrender*, 2 Cl. & F. 550; and *supra*, p. 85.

(b) 2 Sw. & Tr. 67.

(c) L. R. 3 P. D. 1.

(d) See *Scrimshire v. Scrimshire*, 2 Cons. 395; *Middleton v. Janverin*, 2 Cons. 437; *Compton v. Bearcroft*, 2 Cons. 444, cited by Sir Cresswell Cresswell in his judgment.

contract, and that the fact that the parties were forbidden by their domiciliary law to marry without the consent of certain other persons afforded no ground for a decree of nullity.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Capacity to
contract.

Brook v.
Brook.

Following almost immediately upon the case last referred to came that of *Brook v. Brook*,^(a) which was carried to the House of Lords in 1861, and gave rise to a discussion by the highest legal authority of the question now under consideration. The marriage in that case was that of a widower with his deceased wife's sister, both the parties being domiciled in England, but having gone to Denmark for the purposes of the ceremony. Such marriages are prohibited by English law (5 & 6 Will. IV. c. 54),^(b) but are valid by the law of Denmark. It was held by the House of Lords that on such a matter the law of the domicile must prevail, and that the marriage was void. The judgment of Lord Campbell (Lord Chancellor) was put upon the ground that the *essentials* of a marriage contract were to be regulated by the *lex domicilii*, the *forms* by the *lex loci*. The question arises, upon this, whether the capacity or incapacity to marry is to be regarded as a form or an essential. It will be further necessary to seek for a definition of capacity, that it may be seen whether the employment of that term in *Sottomayor v. De Barros* was strictly correct or not in a logical sense.

Capacity is obviously in theory a quality—one of those *qualitates personales impressæ* of which Huber speaks—and may be taken as equivalent to a legal power of doing an act which can admittedly be done by some persons. If the act to which the capacity is referred cannot legally be done at all, it is a misuse of words to speak of a legal capacity or incapacity to do it. Speaking in this strict sense, capacity is only remarkable by its absence—it is invariably some *incapacity* that characterises the exceptional case of which the law is called upon to take notice.

^(a) 9 H. L. C. 193.

^(b) Previously to this statute marriages of persons within the prohibited degrees of affinity were voidable only.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Capacity to
contract.*

Full capacity, in short, is the ordinary *status* or condition of mankind, which can never give rise to criticism or remark; and the only (a) logical incapacities which exist in English law are those occasioned by infancy and insanity. A law which purports to impose a *general* incapacity does not impose an incapacity at all; it simply prohibits an act. No man can marry his deceased wife's sister by English law, and therefore no man can properly be said to be under an incapacity to do so. It is remarkable that, in accordance with this view, the word "capacity" does not actually occur throughout the whole of Lord Campbell's judgment in *Brook v. Brook*, though it was made the foundation-stone of the decision of the Court of Appeal in *Sottomayor v. De Barros*.(b)

Leaving out of consideration, therefore, for the present, the word "capacity," it will be well to consider what are the *essentials* of the marriage contract to which the judgments in *Brook v. Brook* referred. It will be seen on an examination of that case that the only "essential" alluded to was the relation to each other of the parties to the marriage, and the decision of the House of Lords amounted simply to this, that the law of the domicile is the proper law to say whether the *relation between the suggested husband and wife* is such that a marriage between them can be permitted or recognised. If the domiciliary law holds that a marriage between persons so connected is incestuous or in any other way unlawful, the law of every other country is bound to accept its decision with regard to all persons whose domicile renders them subject to it.(c) This is the decision in *Brook v. Brook*, but it must not be strained to extend to cases which it does not naturally cover. The domiciliary law must absolutely forbid such marriage, not merely place an impediment in the way of its being contracted. To say, for example, as in *Sinonin v. Maillac*,(d)

(a) Since the abolition of slavery. The *status* of a slave formerly involved *incapacities* in the strictest sense of the word.

(b) L. R. 3 P. D. 1.

(c) Inasmuch as the wife's domicile becomes the husband's upon the marriage, it is the law of his domicile, not hers, which must in all cases be looked to. This appears a necessary conclusion, but there is no express decision: *vide supra*, p. 343.

(d) 2 Sw. & Tr. 67.

that parties under a certain age shall not marry without the consent of certain other people, is neither to define a natural incapacity (as is done by a law which fixes a given age as the period of infancy for its subjects), nor to declare that a particular sort of marriage is incestuous or unlawful. It is merely the addition of a ceremonial form, the construction of an artificial impediment. On the other hand, where the law of the domicil forbids a marriage between first cousins, as in *Sottomayor v. De Barros*, and declares such to be absolutely unlawful, that amounts to a prohibition against the contracting of such a marriage at all, and is a very different thing from a direction as to the manner in which it may be contracted effectually. The laws of other countries are bound to recognise a prohibition addressed by a domiciliary law to its own subjects, but not to follow its directions for performance. It may be added, that this distinction is not affected by the fact that in *Sottomayor v. De Barros* the Portuguese law would have consented to its own effacement if a dispensation from the Pope had been obtained. Dispensation with a law is in principle a very different thing from compliance with its directions, though in practice the effect of the two may sometimes be similar. In such a case as *Sottomayor v. De Barros*, the law of Portugal does not say that, when first cousins wish to intermarry, they shall obtain the written consent of the Pope to their doing so. It says they shall not marry at all, and such a prohibition by a domiciliary law is not the less complete, as far as other tribunals are concerned, because the same domiciliary law, under certain circumstances, allows itself to be dispensed with.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Capacity to contract.

The distinction which it has been attempted in the preceding paragraph to draw between a prohibition of an act, and a direction as to the manner in which it must be performed, is supported by the Irish decision of *Steele v. Braddell*,^(a) referred to with approval by Lord Campbell in *Brook v. Brook*. By the Irish Marriage Act (9 Geo. II. c. 11) it is enacted that all marriages, when either of the parties

(a) Milw. Eccl. Rep. (Ir.) p. 1.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Capacity to
contract.*

is under the age of twenty-one, contracted without the consent of the father or guardian, shall be absolutely null and void to all intents and purposes. In *Steele v. Braddell* the marriage was celebrated in Scotland, and the husband, a minor, had not obtained the required consent. A suit was thereupon brought without success by his guardian in the Irish court to annul the marriage, on the ground that the statute created a personal incapacity in its domiciled subjects to contract marriage while minors, in any place, without the consent stipulated for in the enactment. "This," says Lord Campbell,^(a) "was a marriage between parties, who with the consent of parents and guardians might have contracted a valid marriage according to the law of the country of the husband's domicile, and the mode of celebrating the marriage was to be according to the law of the country in which it was celebrated. But if the union between these parties had been prohibited by the law of Ireland as 'contrary to the law of God,' undoubtedly the marriage would have been dissolved. Dr. Radcliff expressly says that it cannot be disputed that every State has the right and power to enact that every contract made by one or more of its subjects shall be judged of, and its validity decided, according to its own enactments and not according to the laws of the country wherein it was formed." (How far this latter *dictum* may be regarded as applicable to contracts in the ordinary sense of the word has been considered above.^(b)) On the same principle it is clear that the provisions of the English Marriage Act (26 Geo. II. c. 33), as to the previous consents required to render the marriage of minors valid, were not intended to apply to marriages celebrated out of England, any more than the other provisions in that Act as to the necessity for banns or licence. The Act, in Lord Campbell's words, did not touch the essentials of the contract, or prohibit any marriage which was before lawful. It dealt with formalities and celebration alone.^(c) There is, it is true,

^(a) *Brook v. Brook*, 9 H. L. C. 216.^(c) *Brook v. Brook*, 9 H. L. C. 215.^(b) *Ante*, pp. 339, 340.

one description of prohibition of marriage absolutely which is conceivable, and would amount, did it exist, to an assumption by the law to create an incapacity in the proper sense. It has been suggested that the effect of attainder is to incapacitate the attainted person from contracting a valid marriage at all; but however the law of some foreign countries may regard the attainder of their subjects, it has been decided, first, that attainder by English law does not create even an incapacity to marry in England; and, secondly, that even if it did so, it would not, except by express enactment to that effect, claim any extra-territorial effect, so as to prohibit the marriage of the attainted person abroad.^(a) It is quite clear that whatever claim might be made by the law of a particular country in this respect, it could be entitled to no international or extra-territorial recognition whatever, on the double ground that political offences are ignored altogether in non-domestic tribunals, and that a law which imposed an absolute incapacity to marry at all must be opposed to the public policy of every civilised community.

The examination of the foregoing cases on the question of the capacity to contract a marriage, taken in conjunction with authorities cited above ^(b) as to the capacity to contract in a commercial sense, shows, it is submitted, that the decision of the Court of Appeal in *Sottomayor v. De Barros* ^(c) accorded in substance with the authority of ^{Capacity for civil contract.} precedents, but was expressed in terms not warranted by that authority, and involved *dicta* directly opposed to it. "None of the cases cited," said Lord Campbell in *Brook v. Brook*, ^(d) "can show the validity of a marriage which the law of the domicile of the parties condemns as incestuous, and which could not, by any forms or consents, have been rendered valid in the country in which the parties were domiciled." It is submitted that that is the only principle upon which *Sottomayor v. De Barros* should have been decided.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Capacity to contract.

(a) *Kynaird v. Leslie*, L. R. 1 C. P. 389.
(c) L. R. 3 P. D. 1.

(b) *Ante*, pp. 47, 339.
(d) 9 H. L. C. 218.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Capacity to
contract.

The doctrine of the prevalence of the *lex domicilii* has, however, been extended, since *Sottomayor v. De Barros* was decided, to the capacity of the spouses to contract with respect to their movable property.^(a) It will be seen by referring to the earlier portion of this treatise, where the general subject of capacity is discussed, that there are reasons for referring all questions arising on marriage to the law of the domicil; and that the question of capacity to enter into an ordinary mercantile contract has not directly arisen since Lord Eldon ruled in favour of the *lex loci* in 1800.^(b)

Royal Mar-
riage Act.

The prohibitions of the Royal Marriage Act have been before alluded to, and, inasmuch as they forbid certain marriages without the previous consent of the reigning Sovereign under the Great Seal, clearly ought in principle to be regarded as only imposing an additional formality, which the law of another country would not be justified in requiring when the marriage was celebrated within its jurisdiction. So far as the laws of foreign States are concerned, there is no difference in theory between the consent of a parent or guardian, and the consent of the reigning Sovereign under the Great Seal. But so far as the law of England is concerned, it is clearly competent for it to say that it will regard certain marriages as invalid, wherever celebrated. It cannot compel, or even expect, other States to adopt its view, but it can and does assert its own intention to take it. It can, that is, and does impose a personal incapacity on the members of the royal family, by declaring that it will act upon the supposition that such an incapacity has been imposed. In accordance with this view the House of Lords decided in the *Sussex Peerage Case* ^(c) that the provisions of the Royal Marriage Act extended to marriages celebrated out of England, and that the law would not allow its object and intention to be defeated. It is noteworthy that in the opinion of the

(a) *Re Cooke's Trusts*, 56 L. J. Ch. 637. Cf. *Cooper v. Cooper*, 13 App. Cas. 88, 108.

(b) *Male v. Roberts*, 3 Esp. 163. See *ante*, Chap. III. p. 47, *seq.*

(c) 11 Cl. & F. 85; and see *ante*, p. 83.

judge in that case the same distinction is drawn between the essentials and the formalities of a marriage contract, the prohibitive and the directory part of the enactment, that has already been shown to be deducible from *Brook v. Brook* (a) and its cognate cases.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.
Capacity to contract.

SUMMARY.

CAPACITY TO CONTRACT.

The capacity to enter into the contract of marriage is p. 338. governed by the *lex domicilii*.

The capacity to enter into a matrimonial contract as to p. 350. movable property is governed by the same law.

The language of the cases establishing the two former p. 338, *seq.* propositions is large enough to include cases of capacity to enter into a mercantile contract; but the older authorities are in favour of the *lex loci*, and the question has not arisen in recent years.

In the contract of marriage, the question, strictly speak- p. 349. ing, is generally, not one of the capacity or incapacity of the parties, but of the legality or illegality of the marriage.

The law of the matrimonial domicile is the proper law to pp. 345-347. decide whether the marriage can, by the use of any forms, ceremonies, or preliminaries, be effected.

The law of the place of celebration is the proper law to decide what forms, ceremonies, or preliminaries shall be employed.

If the law of the matrimonial domicile is such that the marriage cannot be effected by obeying its directions, but can be effected by obtaining a dispensation from its prohibitions, the marriage cannot, in the absence of such dispensation, be legalised by the law of the place of celebration.

The law of any country may, and the English Royal p. 350. Marriage Act does, not only prohibit certain persons from

(a) 9 H. L. C. 193.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Capacity to
contract.*Forms of
contract—
lex loci.

contracting marriage in England except on prescribed conditions, but refuse to recognise any marriage contracted by such persons elsewhere when those conditions have not been complied with.

(b) *Formalities and Legality of the Contract.*

The capacity of the parties to a contract having thus been determined, the question next arises, by what law the formalities and ceremonies of the contract are to be regulated. It has been already shown that the rule with respect to the contract of marriage is that the *forms* must depend upon the *lex loci celebrationis* alone; (a) and it is undoubted that this is only a consequence of the general principle which applies to contracts generally, of whatever nature and wheresoever celebrated. The formalities and ceremonies which the law of the place of celebration demands for the constitution of a contract are to be tested by that law alone; and if they satisfy it, no other law has a right to demand more, or, in the other event, to accept less. (b) So far as regards the formalities of contracts, the maxim of the civil law, "*locus regit actum*," is, with one exception more apparent than real (the transfer of immovables (c)), adopted by the law of England. The point where a conflict of law does nevertheless arise is the distinction between the requisite formalities of celebration and the requisite proof that the contract was duly celebrated, between the creation of the obligation and the evidence of its existence, between the origin of the liability under the *lex loci* and the procedure required for the remedy by the *lex fori*. This conflict was well indicated in *Huber v. Steiner* (d) by Tindal, C.J.: "The distinction between that part of the law of the foreign country, where a personal contract is made, which is adopted, and that which is *not* adopted by our English Courts of law, is well known and

(a) *Ante*, p. 71; *Brook v. Brook*, 9 H. L. C. 193.

(b) *Benham v. Mornington*, 3 C. B. 133; Burge, *For. Law*, vol. i. p. 29; Story, *Conflict of Laws*, §§ 260, 262; *Leroux v. Brown*, 12 C. B. 801; *Warrenden v. Warrenden*, 9 Bligh, 110, per Lord Brougham. See as to bills of exchange, sect. 72 of 45 & 46 Vict. c. 61.

(c) *Ante*, p. 193; *infra*, p. 359.

(d) 2 Scott, 326.

established; viz., that so much of the law as affects the rights and merits of the contract, all that relates *ad litis decisionem*, (a) is adopted from the foreign country; so much of the law as affects the remedy only, all that relates *ad litis ordinationem*, is taken from the *lex fori* of that country where the action is brought." The principles here acknowledged are also clearly laid down in *British Linen Company v. Drummond*, (b) *De la Vega v. Vianna*, (c) and *Don v. Lippman*, (d) overruling an older decision in which a contrary view appears to have been taken. (e) It may therefore be regarded as beyond dispute that whatever relates to the enforcement of the remedy sought must be determined by the *lex fori*, the law of the country to the tribunals of which the appeal is made. But when a law, like the English Statute of Frauds, makes a particular species of evidence necessary to establish the constitution of the contract which was not foreseen or required by the law of the place of celebration, or rejects evidence which that law would have admitted, it becomes more difficult to determine whether this question belongs peculiarly to the enforcement of the remedy, or to the materiality of the contract. A similar difficulty arises, where the English law, as the *lex fori*, instead of being more stringent than the law of the *locus contractus*, is less so, and admits evidence which would have been rejected in the *forum celebrationis* or *solutionis*, as the case may be. It has been decided, as will be shown immediately, that both these questions belong to procedure, and are to be determined by the *lex fori* alone; and this is so even where the matters to which the questionable evidence relates are themselves mere formalities of celebration. The distinction, which it is rather difficult to discern at first sight, appears to be this. The *lex fori* does not attempt to dictate to those who contract beyond its jurisdiction what ceremonies or formalities shall be employed, nor does it examine a con-

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Formalities.

Essentials and
remedy—
distinction
between.

(a) *Vide* Bartolus, Comm. Cod. I. i. 1.

(c) 1 B. & Ad. 284.

(e) *Williams v. Jones*, 13 East, 439.

(b) 10 B. & C. 903.

(d) 5 Cl. & F. 1.

PART III
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Formalities.Requirements
of *lex fori* as
to evidence.

tract that is properly evidenced before it, to see whether the forms and ceremonies actually used are such as it is accustomed to. But it has its own rules of evidence as to the manner in which a contract must be proved as a fact, whether, for example, by parol testimony or by writing, and to these it adheres, whatever may have been the requirements of the foreign law. The question of stamped documents is governed by the same considerations. Facts, such as the payment of money to another's use, will be accepted as *proved* by the *lex fori* without the evidence of a foreign stamp; (a) but if the law of the place where a contract is made declare that it shall be void unless a stamp is used, it cannot be sued upon or enforced elsewhere. These principles are illustrated by the following cases.

1. First, the *lex fori* prevails, when its rules as to evidence are more stringent than those of the *lex loci celebrationis* or *solutionis*—that is, where it demands evidence which they do not require, or rejects evidence which they admit. Thus, in *Leroux v. Brown* (b) it was held that s. 4 of the Statute of Frauds, providing that no action shall be brought upon certain contracts that are not evidenced by writing, applied to contracts made abroad. In that case Jervis, C.J., said, "It is not denied that if s. 4 of the Statute of Frauds applies to the contract itself or to the solemnities of the contract, it cannot be enforced here. I am of opinion that the section in question *applies not to the solemnities of the contract, but to the procedure*, and therefore that the contract cannot be sued upon here." *Acebal v. Levy* (c) shows that the Statute of Frauds similarly claims to regulate procedure when in competition, not with the law of the place of celebration, but with the law of the place of performance. That was an action for the non-receipt of goods ordered by the defendant in London from the plaintiff in Spain, the letter conveying the order being an imperfect memorandum within the Statute of Frauds. Mr. Westlake cites this case for the

(a) *Bristow v. Sequeville*, 5 Ex. 275, 279.

(b) 12 C. B. 801.

(c) 10 Bing. 376.

proposition that when there were several parties to a contract, the solemnities which must be satisfied by each are those of the place where he engages himself, and says that the Statute of Frauds applied *because* the defendants wrote their letter ordering the goods in England. But according to the passage just cited from the judgment in *Leroux v. Brown*,^(a) the Statute of Frauds does not apply to solemnities at all. If it did, it is there expressly stated that it would not regulate contracts merely in the right of the *lex fori*, but the very ground of that decision was that it applied, not to solemnities, but to procedure. The real conflict in *Acebal v. Levy* appears to have been between the English law, claiming to regulate procedure as the *lex fori*, and the Spanish law as the *lex loci solutionis*. The contract proved (apart from the question of the Statute of Frauds) was a contract that the plaintiff should load a particular vessel then lying at a Spanish port with nuts at the shipping price of that port. This being done, there was a delivery to the defendant on board their ship in Spain, and though the Court did not consider that there was an acceptance to bind the defendant and take the case out of the Statute of Frauds, yet it is difficult to see how any law but the Spanish can be regarded as the law of the place of performance. The Statute of Frauds was therefore held to apply, not because the defendant promised in England—according to *Leroux v. Brown* it would have been the same wherever he promised—but because its provisions are intended to regulate procedure, and the law of the place of performance of a contract cannot, in an English court, be allowed to compete with it.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.
*Contract—
Formalities.*

2. When the *lex fori* admits evidence which the *lex loci celebrationis* would have rejected, the facts will be taken as sufficiently proved, but if they disclose that the solemnities required by the *lex loci celebrationis* were not fulfilled, then in accordance with that law the contract will be held void. Thus, it is now established that a written

Requirements
of *lex loci* as
to evidence.

(a) 12 C. B. 801.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Formalities.*

contract which does not bear the stamp required by the law of the place where it was made cannot be sued upon in England, (a) though the opposite view had formerly been taken, (b) on the ground that the revenue laws of a foreign State need not be regarded. But in *Bristow v. Sequeville* a receipt proving the payment of money to the use of another was admitted in evidence, though without the stamp required by the law of the *locus actus*; and, although Mr. Westlake expresses his dissent from this decision, (c) it is submitted, with all respect to his authority, that it is in perfect accordance with the principles of *Alves v. Hodgson* and *Clegg v. Levy*. The *lex loci actus* no doubt said that such a receipt, unstamped, should not be admitted to prove the payment. That, in the opinion of Lord Cranworth, was a pure question of procedure, and so far it is difficult to see how a contrary opinion could be maintained. The payment to the use of another being thus proved *as a fact*, where was the contract? The contract was one implied by law, begotten by the law out of that fact. It was a contract which would be implied as well by the foreign law as by the English, if the facts which rendered the implication necessary were sufficiently brought before it. The rules of procedure of the foreign law prevented it from accepting the facts, but the rules of procedure of the English law did nothing of the kind; and therefore the English law was able to make the implication which the foreign law did not.

[The less hesitation has been felt in dissenting from Mr. Westlake's view of *Bristow v. Sequeville* because it is avowedly opposed to that adopted by Lord Cranworth in coming to his decision; but, in venturing to criticise an

(a) *Alves v. Hodgson*, 7 T. R. 241; *Clegg v. Levy*, 3 Camp. 166; *Bristow v. Sequeville*, 5 Ex. 275, per Lord Campbell. The point seems to have arisen in *Legrelle v. Davis*, 5 L. T. 54, where a rule *nisi* was obtained on the ground that the stamp of the *loci celebrationis* was necessary, but the case is not further reported. With respect to bills of exchange, it is now expressly enacted that a bill issued abroad shall not be invalid by reason only that it is not stamped in accordance with the law of the place of issue (45 & 46 Vict. c. 61, s. 72).

(b) *James v. Catherwood*, 3 Dowl. & Ry. 190; *Wynne v. Jackson*, 2 Russ. 351.

(c) Priv. Int. Law, § 177.

authority of so much weight, it is right to give the reasoning by which it is supported. Mr. Westlake says (§ 177): "The special force of a rule of evidence is to exclude, not to admit, testimony of a certain character, every kind being *prima facie* receivable. We therefore give full effect to the *lex fori* if we admit no evidence which it rejects; without accepting, merely because it does not reject it, proofs of which the real tendency is not to establish, but to create, an obligation. Or the point may be put thus. Read the evidence, if you please, but read it for what it is worth. The point we have to try is whether there was an obligation in the *locus contractus* to the law of which you submitted yourself; and to this your evidence does not go, for it only proves the transaction as a fact, which is not enough." In answer to the first argument, it may be said, briefly, that, if the special force of a rule of evidence is "to exclude, not to admit, testimony of a certain class, every kind being *prima facie* receivable," then, if we are to follow the *lex fori*, we must exclude the evidence which it excludes, and admit all other. To exclude anything more would be to follow, not the *lex fori*, but the *lex fori plus* the law of some other country. Nor is it accurate to say that proofs can create an obligation; the most they can do is to show whether an obligation has been created. Secondly, if the transaction is proved as a fact, that is enough; for the contract in *Bristow v. Sequeville* was one which was implied out of the fact by the law. It must be assumed (the contrary not being shown), and it no doubt was the case, that the *lex loci actus* would equally have implied the obligation, if it had recognised the fact. The *lex fori*, therefore, when it had once got the fact established, was able to say that there was an obligation even by the *lex loci actus*; although the *lex loci actus* would have been obliged to ignore the obligation which it had itself created, because it could not take judicial notice of the fact out of which that obligation arose.]

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Formalities.

The doctrine that the formalities of a contract depend in all cases upon the law of the place of celebration, and

Formalities distinguished from procedure.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Formalities.

that the validity of the obligation will be recognised by no Court if these preliminaries have not been complied with, is not at all impeached by the judgment in the case of *Ex parte Melbourn*.^(a) There the law of Batavia, where the contract was executed, required that any contract made on marriage, by which property was settled on the wife separately, should be registered, *in order to have any effect as against third parties*. It was held in substance that this was not a formality preliminary to the validity of the contract, but a provision as to the future remedies of the creditors of the husband, in the event of his assets being administered in bankruptcy. It will be seen elsewhere that in bankruptcy all priorities between creditors are regarded as matters of procedure, which the *lex fori* alone is entitled to decide.^(b) But where the law of the matrimonial domicile, which had been expressly adopted by the parties to regulate their rights in each other's goods, required that in any post-nuptial contract entered into by the wife respecting her movable property, there should be as many original instruments as there were distinct parties, a contract executed by her in England was held valid, though these formalities had not been complied with.^(c) No law can prevent competent parties from contracting validly according to the *lex loci*; though persons may, of course, contract themselves out of such a power in reference to a particular subject-matter.

With respect to the formalities attending the indorsements of bills of exchange, it will be seen below (pp. 436, *sq.*) that the Bills of Exchange Act, 1882, enacts that these shall be referred to the law of the place of indorsement (45 & 46 Vict. c. 61, s. 72). The cases prior to that statute were in conflict, it having been more than once held that the acceptor's contract was to pay on an indorsement valid by the law of the place of acceptance, or, at any rate, that the question was one of intention.^(d) As against the *indorser*, there is no authority

^(a) L. R. 6 Ch. 64.^(b) *Pardo v. Bingham*, L. R. 6 Eq. 485.^(c) *Guepratte v. Young*, 4 De G. & Sm. 217.^(d) *Lebel v. Tucker*, L. R. 3 Q. B. 77; *Smallpage's Case*, 30 Ch. D. 598; *contra*, *Bradlaugh v. De Rin*, L. R. 5 C. P. 473.

for saying that the ordinary rule does not apply which requires that the formalities required by the *lex loci celebrationis* should be satisfied.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Formalities.

The one undoubted exception in English law to the maxim "*locus regit actum*," as applied to the formalities of contracts, is the result of the principle which claims supremacy for the *lex situs* in all that relates to immovables. That principle was laid down clearly by Lord Mansfield in *Robinson v. Bland* (a) in 1760, and even older authorities to the same effect are found with respect to wills. (b) "In every disposition or contract," says Lord Mansfield in the case cited, "where the subject-matter relates locally to England, the law of England must govern, and must have been intended to govern. Thus, a conveyance or will of land, a mortgage, a contract concerning stocks, must all be sued on in England, and the local nature of the thing requires them to be carried into execution according to the law here." A similar doctrine was adopted in *Waterhouse v. Stanfield*. (c) In that case the effect of the Demerara law was considered as to land in Demerara, and it was held that a local statute, purporting to restrain the alienation by a debtor of any immovable property without the assent of his debtors, express or implied, and without certain prescribed forms intended to secure this object, must prevail to exclude the claim of an English assignee of the equitable interest in such land.

Transfer of
immovables—
contracts for.

The deviation from the rule of *locus regit actum* with regard to immovables, which has just been stated, is explained by Westlake (d) as the necessary result of the peculiar character of the English land law. It is not acknowledged by continental jurists, though as firmly established in Scotch and American law (e) as in our own, and it may be perhaps more correctly regarded as one of the essential differences between the real property law of England and that of foreign countries, than as a consequence of those differences. There is an obvious

(a) 2 Burr. 1079.

(b) *Bovey v. Smith*, 1 Vern. 85 (1682); *Coppin v. Coppin*, 2 P. Wms. 293 (1725); Westlake, Priv. Int. Law, § 84. (c) 10 Hare, 254.

(d) Priv. Int. Law, § 83.

(e) Story, Conflict of Laws, § 727.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII

Contract—
Formalities.

difficulty in selecting one of concurrent phenomena as the result of the others, and it is a safer theory to assume for all a common parentage. It is quite true, as Westlake says, that the English law "cannot possibly recognise a transfer of land, which, made in a foreign form, might contemplate estates, rules of succession, and other incidents of property so strange to its system that even the words in which they were expressed might be incapable of an English interpretation." But it cannot be assumed that it was for that reason—a reason of convenience only—that the English law has always rejected foreign transfers of English land. The real cause was more probably the spirit of exclusion which has applied the *lex situs* in England to every conceivable question that affected the soil—to the question of succession, for example, and of the legitimacy of the heir.(a) "*Nullus princeps legitimat personam ad succedendum in bona alterius territorii*," are the words of D'Argentré,(b) quoted by Westlake; and it can scarcely be doubted that the exclusiveness of the feudal law in this particular was due to higher considerations than the difficulty of translating a foreign conveyance, or of interpreting the meaning of a foreign legal practitioner.

English
stamp laws.

The cases in which an *English* stamp is required, on documents executed out of the United Kingdom, are now indicated by 33 & 34 Vict. c. 97, s. 17, which enacts that no instrument executed in any part of the United Kingdom, nor relating, *wheresoever executed*, to any property situate, or to any matter or thing done or to be done, in any part of the United Kingdom, be pleaded or given in evidence (except in criminal proceedings) or be admitted as good or available in law or equity, unless it is duly stamped in accordance with the law in force at the time when it was first executed. And by s. 15 of the same Act provision is made for stamping, without penalty, instruments made abroad, within two

(a) *Birtwhistle v. Vardill*, 5 B. & C. 438; 2 Cl. & F. 571.

(b) Art. 218, 6, n. 2.

months from their being brought into the United Kingdom. Thus, a contract made abroad requires an English stamp, if the subject-matter or place of performance be in England. If the law of the place of celebration declared that all contracts made within its jurisdiction should be void without the local stamp, such contracts as those referred to in 33 & 34 Vict. c. 97, s. 17, would apparently require a *double* stamp, the foreign as well as the English, according to the principles already explained as deducible from *Alves v. Hodgson*,^(a) *Clegg v. Levy*,^(b) and *Bristow v. Sequeville*.^(c)

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Formalities.*

It is to be noticed that an older statutory provision (1 & 2 Geo. IV. c. 55, s. 1) on this subject, now repealed by 33 & 34 Vict. c. 97, contained explicit language preventing this result, by an enactment that "every deed, agreement, or other instrument relating to any real or personal property in Great Britain or elsewhere than in Ireland, or to any matter or thing (other than the payment of money) to be done in Great Britain or elsewhere than in Ireland, shall be chargeable with such stamp duties as are or shall be payable by the laws for improving and regulating the stamp duties in Great Britain, and *not with any other stamp duty: Provided always that every such deed, agreement, or other instrument shall be charged and chargeable with such stamp duties accordingly, and no more, whether the same shall be engrossed and executed at any place or places within the United Kingdom, or at any place or places not within the United Kingdom, and whether any of the parties to such deed, agreement, or other instrument shall be resident in or executing the same at any place either in Great Britain or Ireland or elsewhere.*"

This language was no doubt clear enough, although its effect may have been doubtful, but the whole Act was repealed in 1870 (33 & 34 Vict. c. 97), and the new enactment contained in 33 & 34 Vict. c. 97, s. 17, which has already been cited, contains no equivalent provision. S. 3 of the last-mentioned statute does, it is true, enact

(a) 7 T. R. 241.

(b) 3 Camp. 166.

(c) 5 Ex. 275.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Formalities.

that there shall be charged upon the several instruments specified in the schedule to the Act, "*the several duties in the said schedule specified, and no other duties.*" The effect of this general provision may, however, well be doubted. It is clearly not a law intended to render the imposition of duty by the *lex loci celebrationis*, in the cases covered by s. 17, illegal; and it is more than arguable that it amounts to no more than an enactment that no other duties are to be imposed by *English law*.^(a) Are they not, however, to be recognised by an English Court, when duly imposed by a foreign law, competent according to the rules of international jurisprudence to impose them? It is submitted that they are, and that if a contract were made abroad in a country the law of which declared that all contracts should be void if made within its limits without the local stamp, it could not, though requiring an English stamp under s. 17 of the Stamp Act, 1870, be sued upon in an English court without the foreign stamp as well, notwithstanding the provisions of s. 3.

It should be remarked that, apart from these statutory provisions, no duty was chargeable, according to the earlier Stamp Acts, on agreements not made within Great Britain. S. 2 of the Stamp Act, 1815 (55 Geo. III. c. 184), enacts that the duties specified in the Act shall be raised, levied, and paid unto and for the use of the Crown, *in and throughout the whole of Great Britain*, for and in respect of the instruments, matters, and things mentioned in the schedule. Accordingly, it was held by Lord Kenyon at Nisi Prius, that for an agreement made on board a ship at sea, a stamp was not required.^(b) The stamp was always, however, essential if the agreement was actually made in England, whatever might have been the place of performance, or the *situs* of the subject-matter.^(c) These decisions were upon the earlier Stamp

(a) It is to be noted that, according to the preamble, the object of 1 & 2 Geo. IV. c. 55, was to remove doubts in cases where the stamp laws of England and Ireland came into competition.

(b) *Ximenes v. Jaques*, 1 Esp. 311.

(c) *Wright v. Commissioners of Inland Revenue*, 11 Ex. 458; *Stonelake v. Babb*, 5 Burr. 2675.

Acts, but the language of 33 & 34 Vict. c. 97, s. 17, cited above, is even less ambiguous. "No instrument executed in any part of the United Kingdom . . . shall, except in criminal proceedings, be pleaded or given in evidence, or admitted to be good, useful, or available in law or equity, unless it is duly stamped in accordance with the law in force at the time when it was first executed."

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.
*Contract—
Formalities.*

Until the passing of the Stamp Act, 1870, the stamps on foreign bills of exchange were regulated by 17 & 18 Vict. c. 83, which provided (s. 3) that a stamp should be necessary on all bills drawn out of the United Kingdom, whenever they should be paid, indorsed, transferred, or otherwise negotiated within the United Kingdom. No stamp was required on bills drawn abroad and payable in this country until this enactment; but the stamp required is not of course made a *formality* of the original contract by such statutory provisions. It does, however, become a formality of the contract between the indorser and indorsee if the bill is indorsed in England, and then is governed as such by the *lex loci*. If, therefore, the indorsee sued the indorser in a foreign court on a foreign bill, the indorsement having taken place in England, and it appeared that the English stamp had not been affixed, the foreign Court should in strictness refuse to recognise the indorser's liability; though *secus*, it would appear, if the English statute merely said that the bill and indorsement should not be *given in evidence* without the English stamp.^(a) The Stamp Act, 1870, repealed the provisions of 17 & 18 Vict. c. 83, on this subject, but re-enacted them in another form. By s. 51 it is provided that every person into whose hands any bill or note made out of the United Kingdom comes shall, before he presents for payment, or indorses, transfers, or in any manner negotiates or pays such bill or note, affix thereto a proper adhesive stamp and cancel the same. S. 54 imposes a penalty of £10 on every person who issues, indorses, transfers,

Stamps on
bills of
exchange.

(a) *Bristow v. Sequeville*, 5 Ex. 275; *Alves v. Hodgson*, 7 T. R. 241, and *ante*, p. 355.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Formalities.

negotiates, presents for payment, or pays any bill or note liable to duty and not stamped; and further enacts that the person who takes or receives from any other person any such bill or note unstamped shall not be entitled to recover on the same, or to make the same available for any purpose whatever. (a) These provisions appear to go far beyond any mere regulations of evidence and procedure, so that the principle of the judgment in *Bristow v. Sequeville* (b) would not apply to them if, under the circumstances just supposed, an English indorsee were to sue the indorser in a foreign court. The question as to what amounted to indorsement, negotiation, or transfer, under the earlier statute, arose in *Griffin v. Weatherley*. (c) When, however, a foreign bill of exchange which has been transferred or negotiated in England is sued on in an English court, if the stamp appear to be on it at the time of the trial, it will be presumed, in the absence of evidence to the contrary, to have been there when the bill was transferred to the holder. (d) As to the necessity for foreign stamps, it is now enacted by the Bills of Exchange Act, 1882 (45 & 46 Vict. c. 61), s. 72, that a foreign bill is not invalid by reason only that it is not stamped in accordance with the law of the place of issue.

Illegal
contract.

(c) *Legality of Contract.*—Wide as the operation necessarily is which is given to the *intention* of the parties to a contract, it is plain that it can have no effect upon the question of the legality or illegality of the thing contracted for. No law can permit itself to be evaded, nor can it, consistently with the principles of international jurisprudence, sanction the evasion of a foreign law. Thus, if the thing contracted to be done is illegal by the law of the place of the intended performance, the contract should be held void, wherever it was actually entered into, by all Courts alike. Where, however, it is the contract itself, the exchange of a certain consideration either for any or for a certain promise, that one of the competing

(a) 33 & 34 Vict. c. 97, ss. 51, 54.

(b) 5 Ex. 275.

(c) L. R. 3 Q. B. 753.

(d) *Bradlaugh v. De Rin*, L. R. 3 C. P. 286.

laws claims to forbid, the question assumes a different form. In such a case it would seem that the legality of the agreement must be decided by the law of the place where it is made. It appears clear, at any rate, that a contract illegal by that law will not be recognised or adopted by the English Courts; though the converse case, where a contract was legal where made but is forbidden by English law, may often prove a more complex one. No tribunal can of course be called upon to sanction or enforce any agreement which is contrary to its own notions of justice or morality.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Legality.

First, therefore, with regard to performance, where the thing contracted to be done is illegal by the law of the place where it is intended to do it, the contract is void in all courts alike. This is only in accordance with the general principle that all questions relating to the mode, time, or conditions of performance are to be determined by the law of the place where the parties have agreed to perform; (a) and, subject to one exception to be presently noticed, the rule is firmly established, though the English authorities on the point are scanty. Thus, an agreement, to be carried into effect in this country, which would be void on the ground of champerty if made here, is not the less void because made in a foreign country where such a contract would be legal, and with a domiciled subject of that foreign country. (b) In *Branley v. South-Eastern Railway Company* (c) the distinction between a case of this kind, and one where the element of illegality does not touch the performance of the agreement, is clearly seen. The question was, whether the railway company, who were directed by English statutes to charge uniform rates for carriage, could impose an increased charge upon "packed parcels" received at Boulogne for conveyance to London; such an increased charge having been pronounced by the Courts illegal when the contract was

(a) *Branley v. South-Eastern Ry. Co.*, 12 C. B. N. S. at p. 71, per Tindal, C.J., in *Trimby v. Vignier*, 4 M. & S. 695, 704, *infra*.

(b) *Grell v. Levy*, 16 C. B. N. S. 73.

(c) 12 C. B. N. S. 63.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Legality.

Performance
illegal by
lex loci
solutionis.

made in England.(a) What the company contracted to do in that case was to carry a packed parcel, part of the journey being in England; and as there was no illegality in carrying packed parcels in England, it appears to have been rightly decided that the contract made in Boulogne for an increased rate of payment on such articles could be recognised by English law. "As a general rule," said Erle, C.J., "the *lex loci contractus* governs in deciding whether there was illegality in the contract; and according to the law of France there was nothing illegal."(b) This *dictum* must, according to the principle now under consideration, be qualified by regarding the "general rule" as applicable to the illegality of the contract itself, and not of its performance merely. It may indeed be supported in another sense, by remembering that when a question of performance arises the *lex loci contractus* is the law, not *loci celebrationis* but *solutionis*. In *Heriz v. Riera*,(c) referred to by Westlake, an agreement had been made in Spain between a merchant and an officer of the Spanish Government, which the fiduciary position of the latter rendered void by Spanish law. The plaintiff alleged a renewal and repetition of the contract out of the Spanish dominions, an allegation which was held to be unsupported by sufficient evidence; but Westlake suggests that even if such a promise had been sufficiently proved it would have been void by the law of Spain as the country of performance. In *Pattison v. Mills* (d) a contract of insurance was made in Scotland by the agent of an English insurance company for granting a marine policy in London, during the operation of the statute (6 Geo. I. c. 18) which conferred upon certain other companies a monopoly of marine policies of insurance. It was held that the agreement, notwithstanding, could be sued upon; partly upon the ground that the statute was not intended to apply to Scotland, or to a contract to insure Scotch property entered

(a) *Parker v. Great Western Ry. Co.*, 7 M. & G. 253; 11 C. B. 545; *Crouch v. Great Northern Ry. Co.*, 11 Ex. 742.

(b) 12 C. B. N. S. at p. 72.

(c) 11 Sim. 318; Westlake, § 193.

(d) 1 Dow & Cl. 342.

into in Scotland ; partly upon the hypothesis that England was not necessarily the country of performance, and that a policy in accordance with the contract might even have been granted in Scotland. In *Robinson v. Bland* (a) Lord Mansfield went beyond the principle under discussion, and expressed an opinion that a bill given in France, for a gaming debt, and payable in England, was subject to the English law as that of the place of performance, and that the holder could not recover. "The law of the place of contract," said Lord Mansfield, "can never be the rule, where the transaction is entered into with an express view to the law of another country as the rule by which it is to be governed." It has been already pointed out that the question of illegality in the performance comes within the general rule enunciated by Story, that where the contract is either expressly or tacitly to be performed in another place, the contract, in conformity to the presumed intention of the parties, is to be governed, as to its validity, nature, obligations, and interpretations, by the law of the place of performance.(b) It is probably on this ground that the decision in *Rousillon v. Rousillon* (c) ought in theory to be supported. In that case it was held that an English Court would not enforce a contract void by English law as against public policy, though made in a country where no such rule existed. It is, however, apparent from the facts of that case that the contract (which was said to be in restraint of trade) was intended to be performed partially, if not wholly, in England.(d) And just as any connection with an illegal object is held sufficient in municipal law to vitiate a contract,(e) so it is not necessary for the application of this principle to private international law that the contract to which exception is taken should

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Legality.

Illegal object
of contract—
complicity in.

(a) 2 Burr. 1078. But now see *Quarrier v. Colston*, 1 Phill. 147.

(b) Story, § 280; 2 Kent, Comm. Lect. 393. (c) 14 Ch. D. 351, 369.

(d) It is suggested that an analogous explanation may be given of *Lee v. Abdy*, 17 Q. B. D. 309. An assignment between husband and wife is in one sense "performed" in the place of the matrimonial domicile when its consequences follow.

(e) See note to *Collins v. Blantern*, 1 Sm. L. C. 369, and per Tindal, C.J., in *De Begnis v. Armistead*, 10 Bing. 110.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Legality.

be expressly to do some action prohibited by the law of the place of intended performance. Thus, the vendor of goods intended to be smuggled into England, who had lent himself to the unlawful intention by packing them in a particular way, was held unable to recover their price; (a) though, under somewhat similar circumstances, a vendor who had a knowledge only of the illegal design, to the furtherance of which he had not himself contributed, was not debarred from suing. (b) The decisions in the two last-mentioned cases have been much criticised, and exception can no doubt be taken to the reasoning of Lord Abinger in the latter of the two. "The distinction is, when he takes an actual part in the illegal adventure, as in packing the goods in prohibited parcels or otherwise, there he must take the consequences of his act. But it has never been said that merely selling to a party who means to violate the laws of his own country is a bad contract. . . . The plaintiff sold the goods; the defendant might smuggle them if he liked, or he might change his mind next day; it does not at all import a contract, of which the smuggling was an essential part." (c) In contrast with this the language of Eyre, C.J., may well be placed. "Upon the principles of the Common Law, the consideration of every valid contract must be meritorious. The sale and delivery of goods, nay, the agreement to sell and deliver goods, is *primâ facie* a meritorious consideration to support a contract for the price. But the man who sold arsenic to one who he knew intended to poison his wife with it, would not be allowed to maintain an action upon his contract. . . . Other cases where the means of transgressing a law are furnished with knowledge that they are intended to be used for that purpose will differ in shade more or less from this strong case; but the body of the colour is the same in all. No man ought to furnish another with the means of transgressing the law, knowing

(a) *Waymell v. Read*, 5 T. R. 599; 1 Esp. 91; *Lightfoot v. Tennant*, 1 B. & P. 551; *Biggs v. Lawrence*, 3 T. R. 454.

(b) *Holman v. Johnson*, Cowp. 341; *Pellocat v. Angell*, 2 C. M. & R. 311.

(c) 2 C. M. & R. 313.

that he intends to make that use of them.”(a) The tendency which was exhibited, in the cases referred to above, to extenuate participation not indicated by overt acts in intended smuggling, is no doubt due to another theory, which has established itself with much firmness in English jurisprudence, that the obligations of revenue laws have less claim to respect than any other legal commands. The distinction between *malum prohibitum* and *malum in se* has nowhere taken a more powerful hold upon the legal imagination. Its effect in extenuating passive participation in the breach of our own revenue laws has been already indicated; but it has had a wider operation still with regard to those of foreign countries; and in more than one case it has been held that an act declared illegal by a foreign revenue law as the law of the intended place of performance is not illegal at all, but can be validly contracted for in England. Thus, a contract made in England to defraud the revenue laws of Portugal was supported by Lord Hardwicke; (b) and a contract to insure a ship intended to engage in trade with a Spanish colony forbidden by the mother country was recognised upon the same principle by Lord Mansfield.(c) Modern writers have, however, concurred in condemning these decisions, and, though the theory is firmly established in America also, it can hardly be assumed that they will be followed in the event of the question again arising here.(d)

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Legality.

Revenue laws.

Secondly, the question of legality may arise with reference to the contracting of the agreement, and not to its performance. The consideration, on one side or the other, may either be an unlawful thing in itself to exchange for any promise, or unlawful with reference to the particular promise for which it is given. There is no authority for saying that the question of legality, in such cases as these,

Illegality of
agreement.

(a) *Lightfoot v. Tennant*, 1 B. & P. 551, 555.

(b) *Boucher v. Lawson*, Cas. temp. Hard. 85, 191.

(c) *Lever v. Fletcher*, Park. Mar. Ins. i. 506. See also *Sharp v. Taylor*, 2 Phill. 801; *Simson v. Bazett*, 2 M. & S. 94; *Bazett v. Meyer*, 5 Taunt. 824.

(d) See Story, § 257; Westlake, §§ 201, 202; 1 Chitty, Comm. 83, 84; 3 Kent, Comm. 266, 267.

PART III.

ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Legality.

is determined by any other law than that of the place where the contract is entered into, except the *dictum* in *Robinson v. Bland*,^(a) which has been already mentioned. In *Quarrier v. Colston* ^(b) the plaintiff was held entitled to sue in England for money lost and lent at gaming on the Continent, where there was no law prohibiting such practices; and, though in that case there was no *lex loci solutionis* to compete with the *lex loci celebrationis*, the decision is valuable as showing that Lord Mansfield's expression of opinion in *Robinson v. Bland* is practically overruled. Had the gaming transactions taken place in England, the whole consideration for the debt would have been illegal in itself, and one which could not have been lawfully exchanged for any promise. In *Branley v. South-Eastern Railway Company* ^(c), which has just been referred to, it was conceded that the English statute prohibited the railway company, in England, from contracting to carry "packed parcels" at an increased rate, or from departing under any circumstances from a uniform rate. This promise to carry was therefore an unlawful consideration to exchange, according to English law, for any promise but one, *i.e.*, a promise to pay for the carriage according to the uniform statutory rate. But the performance of the promise, the carriage of the goods, was in no sense prohibited by the law of the place of performance, and the *lex loci celebrationis* was therefore allowed to determine for itself the legality of the interchange of promises; just as in *Quarrier v. Colston* ^(d) the same law was left to pronounce upon the legality of a gaming transaction. If the giving of the consideration for the promise was unlawful in the first instance by the law of the place where the transaction took place, a renewal of the promise in another country where the contract could lawfully have been made, as by giving new bills in France for a gaming debt previously contracted in England, will not,

^(a) 2 Barr. 1078.^(b) 1 Phill. 147. See 9 Anne, c. 14, s. 1, and 18 Geo. II. c. 34, s. 3.^(c) 12 C. B. N. S. 63; *ante*, p. 365.^(d) 1 Phill. 147.

without fresh consideration, whitewash the original illegality.(a)

It might perhaps have been doubted how far these contracts resulting from gaming might have properly come under the head of those agreements, already referred to, which the law refuses to recognise, wherever they are made and in whatever place they are to be performed, because of their moral turpitude or their injurious effect upon the interests of the State or of society. It can hardly be said that such cases properly come under the domain of international law at all, inasmuch as the international element in them, if any, is obliterated by the brand of illegality which the law of England, as the *lex fori*, stamps upon them as soon as their real nature is made apparent. Amongst this class may be enumerated all contracts the object of which involves a breach of the national neutrality in time of war, or is calculated to lend assistance to insurgents against a friendly State; (b) all contracts for future immorality or illicit connection of the sexes, or based in any other way upon moral turpitude and opposed to the interests of justice.(c) Contrary to what might, perhaps, have been expected, a contract for the sale of slaves does not appear to be regarded by the English law as so tainted with turpitude as to be incapable of recognition. That this should have been the view taken when slaves were still held in the British colonies, and regarded there as part of the soil—*ascripti glebæ*—is not, of course, a matter for surprise; (d) nor that, before the conclusion of a treaty between Great Britain and Spain for the suppression of the slave trade, and the creation of a right of searching Spanish vessels on the high seas with that object,(e) it should have been held that a Spaniard,

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Legality.

Immoral
contracts.

Contracts
concerning
slaves.

(a) *Wynne v. Callander*, 1 Russ. 293.

(b) *De Wütz v. Hendricks*, 9 Moo. 586; S. C. 2 Bing. 314; *Thompson v. Poulos*, 2 Sim. 194; *Jones v. Garcia del Rio*, 1 T. & Russ. 297; *Yrisarri v. Clement*, 2 C. & P. N. P. C. 223; 3 Bing. 432; *Hennings v. Rothschild*, 9 B. & C. 470; 4 Bing. 315, 335; *Taylor v. Barclay*, 2 Sim. 213.

(c) Com. Dig. Assumpsit, E. 7; *Collins v. Blantern*, 2 Wils. 341, 1 Sm. L. C. in notis; *Madrazo v. Wiles*, 3 B. & Ald. 353; *Forbes v. Cochrane*, 2 B. & C. 448.

(d) *Smith v. Brown*, 2 Salk. 666.

(e) *Wheaton*, Int. Law (Lawrence), p. 259.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Legality.

being not prohibited from carrying on the slave trade by the laws of his own country, might recover damages in an English court in respect of the wrongful seizure by a British subject on the high seas of a cargo of slaves on board his ship.(a) The slave trade is not, and has never been, piracy by the law of nations,(b) except by convention, and the action therefore was no doubt maintainable. But so recently as 1860 it was held by the Exchequer Chamber that a contract might be made by a British subject for the sale of slaves, lawfully held by him in a foreign country where the possession and sale of slaves is lawful.(c) The defendants in that case were the directors of an association or partnership, consisting of themselves and others, all British domiciled subjects, and were the owners of certain slaves in the Empire of Brazil, where slavery was lawful. The action was brought for breach of a contract of sale, and the question turned mainly upon the proper construction of the English statutes forbidding the purchase, sale, or barter of slaves (5 Geo. IV. c. 113; 6 & 7 Vict. c. 98), the slaves in question having been purchased by the defendants themselves in Brazil after the passing of the former, but before the commencement of the last-mentioned Act. In the Court of Common Pleas it was held that the effect of the two statutes, read together, was to prohibit the trade in slaves by all persons within the control of the Legislature, including British subjects all over the world; and it was added, that the fact of the plaintiff being a foreigner did not authorise him to sue in the courts of this country for the breach of a contract entered into by an English subject in violation of English laws.(d) This judgment was, however, reversed on appeal in the Exchequer Chamber by four judges to two, on the ground that there was nothing in the English statutes to prohibit a contract by a British subject for the sale of slaves, lawfully held by him in a country where the pos-

(a) *Madrazo v. Wiles*, 3 B. & Ald. 353.

(b) Wheaton, Int. Law, p. 256.

(c) *Santos v. Illidge*, 6 C. B. N. S. 841; 8 C. B. N. S. 861.(d) 6 C. B. N. S. 841, 862; *Esposito v. Bowden*, 7 E. & B. 763.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Legality.

session and sale of slaves is lawful. It will be seen that this decision, as did that of the judges in the court below, proceeded entirely upon the intention of the English Legislature, as gathered from the proper interpretation of the English statutes; nor was it pretended that a contract for the sale of slaves could be impeached on any other ground. The history of English legislation on this subject gives the real key to the reasons for regarding the subject in a manner so opposed to that which is now supposed to be the spirit of English law. If English law had been always that which it is now, such a contract would no doubt be regarded in itself as something iniquitous, and incapable, just as a contract for prostitution, of enforcement in an English court. But inasmuch as the rights of slave-holders were at one time an integral part of our own law, just as they are still of the law of some other countries, it is plain that only the limitations which have been placed by English statutes on those rights can be recognised by English law, and that a contract which was once legal must still be regarded as valid, except so far as its legality has been taken away by positive enactment. It cannot be asserted that such a contract is so iniquitous that it ought not to be recognised in an English court, no statute having declared it to be so; and therefore, although such contracts may be *forbidden* by English law, its legality must be tested, not by the *lex fori*, but by the law of the place where the contract was made or where it was to be performed.(a) "In this case," said Bramwell, B., in *Santos v. Illidge*, "the plaintiff sues on a contract made with him, a Brazilian, in the Brazils, which the defendants can lawfully perform there. The defendants refuse to perform it, and give as a reason one which would not be good there, nor probably in any other country than this, viz., that the performance of their contract there would be an offence against the laws here, and therefore ought not to be enforced here."(b) The decision of the Exchequer Chamber was in effect that the reason was not in fact good

(a) *Ante*, p. 365, *seq.* (b) *Santos v. Illidge*, 8 C. B. N. S. 867.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Legality.Intra-
territorial
operation
of law.

even in England, though it no doubt would have been had the English law said expressly that it should be. "The general run of laws enacted by the superior State are supposed to be calculated for its own internal government, and do not extend to its distant dependent countries, which, bearing no part in the Legislature, are not therefore in its ordinary and daily contemplation."^(a) If true of distant dependencies, it is *à fortiori* so with regard to foreign independent States, that a Government, when legislating with regard to acts, does not intend to include acts to be performed within any territorial limits but its own.

SUMMARY.

FORMALITIES OF CONTRACT.

- P. 352. The forms and ceremonies which the law of the place of celebration requires for the constitution of a contract are necessary and sufficient for that purpose.
- P. 354. But where the *lex fori* demands that a contract shall be evidenced in a particular manner, these rules of evidence must be complied with; though their indirect effect is to impose a formality of celebration not required by the *lex loci celebrationis* or *solutionis*, or to refuse as insufficient formalities by which the *lex loci* was satisfied.
- P. 355. Conversely, the *lex fori* may admit evidence which the *lex loci* would have rejected; but the contract, though proved as a fact, will in such cases be held void if that evidence shows that the formalities prescribed by the *lex loci* for the validity of the contract, as distinguished from the manner of proving it, were not fulfilled.
- P. 359. The general rule, that formalities are governed by the *lex loci* (*locus regit actum*) does not, however, apply to contracts which concern immovable property, as to which the *lex situs* prevails.
- pp. 360-363. The stamps which the *lex fori* requires on documents

(a) 1 Bl. Comm. 101; *Attorney-General v. Stewart*, 2 Mer. 143. See *Roussillon v. Roussillon*, 14 Ch. D. 351.

executed out of its jurisdiction are rightly prescribed by it as coming under the head of evidence. PART III.
ACTS.

Where the *lex fori* is silent, the stamp requirements of the *lex loci actus* must be complied with; (except as to foreign bills of exchange, as to which see 45 & 46 Vict. c. 61, s. 72 (1) (a).) CAP. VIII.

Legality of the Contract.

The legality of a contract depends generally upon the law of the place of intended performance. p. 364.

An act which is illegal by the law of the place where it is intended to be done cannot be validly contracted for in any place. p. 365.

But the legality of the making of the agreement, *i.e.*, the giving a particular consideration for a particular promise—seems to depend upon the *lex loci actus*. p. 369.

(d) *Essentials of Contract.*—It has been said above (a) that, assuming a contract to be legal, the intention of the parties is material to every question that can arise upon it, except that of their capacity to enter into a legal obligation at all. And the question of the formalities necessary to a contract, which has recently been considered, is not at all an exception to that rule, inasmuch as the parties contracting are presumed to have submitted themselves for certain purposes to the law of the place where the contract is entered into, and to have intended that the formalities required by that law should be fulfilled. It is obvious that every man who contracts at all, if he is a member of a civilised community, must be aware that his contract will be governed, so far as its formalities are concerned, by some system of law or another; and the system of law which will be oftenest in his mind as that which must claim respect, will undoubtedly be the system of law by which all other matters are regulated in the place where he undertakes his legal obligation. To undertake such

(a) Page 336.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Essentials.

an obligation something must be done or said there and then, and it is fair to assume that this something will be tested by the same law that regulates all other actions and words in the same locality. Such, accordingly, is presumed by private international law to have been the *intention* of the contracting parties ; but when the essentials of the contract are the subject of consideration (to adopt the distinction between forms and essentials which is drawn in *Brook v. Brook* (a)), it is plain that the intention of the parties cannot be so simply ascertained. The legality, for example, of the act, or any of the acts, for which the contract stipulates, cannot depend in the mind of the parties, or in reason and fact, upon the law of the place where the promise to do it is given. Whether any act is a lawful one or not must depend entirely, if words have any meaning, upon the law of the place where it is to be done. On this point it is hardly correct to say that the *intention* of the parties is at all material ; the law does not, strictly speaking, presume them to have intended anything except obedience to the proper law, whatever that might be ; but it does presume them to have known that the legality of every act depends upon the law of the place of intended performance, as a maxim both of jurisprudence and of common-sense. Again, the nature and extent of the obligation which the contracting parties take upon themselves must of course be defined and regulated, whether by construction or implication, by some law ; and undoubtedly, so long as they propose to stipulate for nothing that is in any sense illegal, the intention of the parties, so far as it can be ascertained, is entitled to decide what law must be referred to for the purpose. If the contracting parties were told beforehand the exact law that was to regulate their contract, they could obviously contract for any lawful object they pleased, by the use of proper forms and proper language. It would then be in fulfilment of their intention to apply the law whose provisions had been in their minds to the contract when made. Now, whether parties to a contract are told or

(a) 9 H. L. C. 193.

not, they will always assume some law or other as that which is to govern the obligation. The proper law, therefore, to be eventually applied by any tribunal for this purpose is that which will most frequently and most naturally be assumed by ignorant parties to a contract as that by which their liabilities are defined. The principle is well demonstrated by Lord Brougham, speaking of the rule which refers solemnities to the *lex loci*, in *Warrender v. Warrender* (a): "This is sometimes expressed, and I take leave to say inaccurately expressed, by saying that there is a *comitas* shown by the tribunals of one country towards the laws of the other country. Such a thing as *comitas* or courtesy may be said to exist in certain cases, as where the French Courts inquire how our law would deal with a Frenchman in similar or parallel circumstances, and, upon proof of it, so deal with an Englishman in those circumstances. This is truly a *comitas*, and can be explained on no other ground; and I must be permitted to say, with all respect for the usage, it is not easily reconcilable to any sound reason. But when the Courts of one country consider the laws of another in which any contract has been made, or is alleged to have been made, in construing its meaning, or ascertaining its existence, they can hardly be said to be acting from courtesy, *ex comitate*; for it is of the essence of the subject-matter to ascertain the meaning of the parties, and that they did solemnly bind themselves; and it is clear that you must presume them to have intended what the law of the country sanctions or supposes, and equally clear that their adopting the forms and solemnities which that law prescribes shows their intention to bind themselves; nay more, it is the only safe criterion of their having entertained such an intention. Therefore, the Courts of the country where the question arises resort to the law of the country where the contract was made, not *ex comitate*, but *ex debito justitiæ*; and in order to explicate their own jurisdiction by discovering that which they are in quest of, and which alone they are in quest of, the meaning and intent of the parties."

(a) 9 Bligh, 115.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Essentials.*

In deciding, therefore, upon the proper law to be applied to the essentials of a contract, we must be guided by the intention of the contracting parties; and it will be convenient first to understand clearly what the essentials are, having treated in the preceding pages of the legality of those acts which are forbidden by one and allowed by another of the competing laws. Under the term *essentials* may be classed generally everything that does not come under the description of *forms*. And, taking them in their natural order, these will be:—

(1) The construction and interpretation of the actual words, parol or written, by which the obligation is constituted.

(2) The nature and effect of the obligation which results from those words, properly construed and understood, or which is implied by the law from proved or admitted facts, without the use of any language at all.

(3) The performance of the contract.

(4) The defeasance or discharge of the contract otherwise than by performance.

Construction
of contract
governed by
intention.

(1) *Construction and Interpretation of Contracts.*—The construction and interpretation of contracts being nothing more than the exact definition of what the parties meant by their words (and, in the case of implied contracts, it might perhaps be said, by their silence), appears to depend more absolutely upon the intention of the parties than any other branch of the subject. Now, in those cases where the contract has been executed in a foreign country where the parties to it are domiciled, there can obviously be little or no doubt. The *lex domicilii* is also that of the *loci celebrationis*, and it can hardly be supposed that the parties intended that their language should be interpreted by any other law. (a) Inasmuch as intention is a question of fact, it is no doubt conceivable that language might be used in such a contract which could be reasonably explained only by the law of the place of performance, but

(a) *Anstruther v. Adair*, 2 My. & K. 513, 516; *Thurburn v. Steward*, L. R. 3 P. C. 504.

it is difficult to see how such a question of interpretation could arise apart from that of *performance*, which will require separate consideration. Subject to this reservation, it may be fairly assumed that when a contract is made abroad in the country of the domicile of the parties to it, an English Court will interpret its language by that law.(a) But when the place of execution and the domicile of the parties are different, a further and more difficult question arises, nor is it always easy to see which of the competing laws should give way. On this point the language of Story, indeed, is distinct enough, if the decisions cited by him in support of it warranted its acceptance without reserve.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Construction.

"The general rule, then, is that, in the interpretation of contracts, the law and custom of the place of contract are to govern in all cases where the language is not directly expressive of the actual intention of the parties, but is to be tacitly inferred from the nature and objects and occasion of the contract. The rule has been fully recognised in the courts of common law; and it has been directly decided by those Courts that the interpretation of the contract must be governed by the laws of the country where the contract is made. And the rule is founded in wisdom, sound policy, and general convenience."(b) The English cases cited in support of this proposition are *Trimbey v. Vignier*,(c) *De la Vega v. Vianna*,(d) and *British Linen Company v. Drummond*,(e) but none of them lays down distinctly that, in cases where the domicile of the parties and the place where the contract was made differ, an English Court will interpret the language of the contract by the law of the latter place in preference to all others. In *Trimbey v. Vignier* it is no doubt said by Tindal, C.J., that the interpretation of the contract must be governed by the laws of the country where the contract was made (*lex loci contractus*), while the mode of suing and the time within which the action must be brought must be governed by

Conflict of
lex loci and
lex domicilii.

(a) *De la Vega v. Vianna*, 1 B. & Ad. 284; *Cood v. Cood*, 33 Beav. 314.

(b) Story, *Conflict of Laws*, § 27.

(c) 1 Bing. N. C. 151.

(d) 1 B. & Ad. 284.

(e) 10 B. & C. 903.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Construction.

the law of the country where the action is brought (*in ordinandis judiciis, loci consuetudo, ubi agitur*). It is plain, however, first, that the conflict of law here referred to was the conflict between the *lex loci contractus* and the *lex fori* on a question which it was contended was one of procedure; and, secondly, inasmuch as the point there decided was that the effect of a blank indorsement in France of a note made in that country must be decided by the French law, it is evident that the question was not one of the interpretation of language at all, but of the nature and effect of the obligation which the language created—a matter which belongs properly to the next heading of the subject. In *De la Vega v. Vianna* the question was also one which was contended to belong to procedure as a part of the remedy, and was so held; and in addition to this, both the parties were obviously domiciled in the country where the contract was made. The point is put briefly by Lord Tenterden, C.J., who says: "The plaintiff and the defendant were both foreigners; the debt was contracted in Portugal, and it appears that, by the law of that country, the defendant would not have been liable to arrest. . . . A person suing in this country must take the law as he finds it; he cannot, by virtue of any regulation in his own country, enjoy greater advantages than other suitors here, and he ought not therefore to be deprived of any superior advantage which the law of this country may confer." (a) It is quite clear that this decision has nothing to do with the principles on which the language of a foreign contract is to be interpreted, and it has been cited as an authority on that point only by reason of a *dictum* quoted in it of Heath, J., in *Melan v. Duke of Fitzjames*, (b) to the effect that in construing contracts the Courts must be governed by the laws of the country where they are made. That too, however, was a case of procedure, in which the *lex fori* claimed to be heard; and the same observation may be made as to *British Linen Company v. Drummond*, the

(a) 1 B. & Ad. 287, 288.

(b) 1 B. & P. 138; and see *Talleyrand v. Boulanger*, 3 Ves. Jun. 447.

third case on which Story relies for his proposition, which turned on the applicability of the English Statute of Limitations to a contract made abroad.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.

The truth appears to be, that the expression "interpretation of contracts" is an ambiguous term, in the sense that it has been used with more than one meaning. Story apparently employs it, as it was in fact employed in one or two of the cases just cited, as comprising the general explanation and definition of the agreement which has been formulated between the parties, the rights arising out of it, and the effect of the relation which it has constituted. It will be obvious that the construction or interpretation of the language of the contract will be included in the phrase so used; and as the necessity of distinguishing the part from the whole did not often arise, authorities on one point were accepted as equivalent to authorities on another. That Story did not mean to lay down as an absolute rule, that the law of the place where a contract was made must of necessity decide all questions which may arise on the construction of its language, is plain from what he goes on to add to the language quoted above. "Especially, in interpreting ambiguous contracts, ought the domicile of the parties, the place of execution, the various provisions and expressions of the instrument, or other circumstances implying a local reference, to be taken into consideration."^(a)

Contract—
Construction.
Contracts—
how interpreted.

It can hardly be supposed, therefore, that Story did intend on this question to advocate any imperative rule in favour of the place where the contract was actually executed; and the true principle was laid down by the Court of Appeal in more general language: "What is to be the law by which a contract or any part of it is to be governed or applied must be always a matter of construction of the contract itself as read by the light of the subject-matter and of the surrounding circumstances. Certain presumptions or rules in this respect have been laid down by juridical writers of different countries and

Indicia of
intention—
the English
rule.

(a) Story, Conflict of Laws, § 27.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Construction.

accepted by the Courts, based upon common-sense, upon business convenience, and upon the comity of nations; but these are only presumptions or *prima facie* rules, that are capable of being displaced wherever the clear intention of the parties can be gathered from the document itself and from the nature of the transaction. The broad rule is that the law of a country where a contract is made presumably governs the nature, the obligation, and the interpretation of it, unless the contrary appears to be the express intention of the parties.”(a) In other words, the intention of the parties must govern; and the parties will be presumed to have intended the *lex loci celebrationis*, unless the contrary be shown. They may of course contract with express reference to some particular foreign law; and in such cases the foreign law will only be admitted within the limits of that reference, and not generally—e.g., not as to foreign creditors.(b) And accordingly where an English policy provided for general average “as per judicial foreign statement,” it was held that the foreign law could not be invoked to decide what were and what were not “perils of the sea.”(c) Substantially the same law had been laid down as long ago as 1820 in the case of *Lansdown v. Lansdown*,(d) which came before the House of Lords on appeal from the Irish Court of Chancery, the point being whether the words “lawful money of Great Britain” in a marriage settlement executed in England by parties domiciled there meant lawful money at the rate of English or Irish currency, the “lawful money” issuing as a rent-charge out of land in Ireland. It was held, on the whole instrument, that the intention of the parties was that the money should be paid at the English rate of currency, notwithstanding the local situation of the land. “In the naked case of a charge upon lands,” said Lord Eldon, “the law is clear and settled; but upon wills and instruments of marriage contract all

(a) *Jacobs v. Crédit Lyonnais*, 12 Q. B. D. 589, 599. Cf. *Chamberlain v. Napier*, 15 Ch. D. 614.

(b) *Ex parte Dever, Re Suse and Smith*, 18 Q. B. D. 660.

(c) *Greer v. Poole*, 5 Q. B. D. 272.

(d) 2 Bligh, 60.

the cases cited authorise a distinction. In such cases the intention of the person making the will,(a) and of the parties to the contract, is to be collected from the different parts of the instrument. . . . In this case there are throughout the settlement charges on English as well as Irish estates. Can it be said, as to any of these charges, that a different sum is to be paid to the person entitled, according to the site of the estates out of which the money is drawn? In those instances where Irish estates only are charged, the situation and conduct of the parties, and the language of the instrument of contract, show that they meant English currency.”(b) In *Kearney v. King* (c) it was held that a sum of money named in a promissory note meant a sum of money according to the currency of the place where the note was made; but Story points out (§ 272) that in this case the place where the contract was made is also presumed to be the place of intended performance by payment, so that there is a double indication of the intention of the parties. The same point was assumed in *Sprowle v. Legg*,(d) on the authority of the last-mentioned case. But the domicile of the husband, being also the *situs* of the subject-matter of the trust, has been preferred to the *locus celebrationis* in construing a marriage settlement, so far as that part of the trust property was concerned; the domicile of the wife being preferred as to other trust property dealt with by the same deed, and situate in the country of her domicile. The particular circumstances of the case are not so important as the fact that intention was applied as the sole test. “I infer and collect,” said Hall, V.C., “from the trusts of the contract, that there was an intention that there should be a difference between them: that one set should be construed as being English and the other as being Scotch.”(e) The in-

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Construction.

Interpretation
of language.

(a) More recent decisions, however, have established the *lex domicilii* as the sole interpreter of a will. *Vide ante*, p. 262.

(b) 2 Bl. 88, 93. *Vide Phipps v. Anglesea*, 5 Vin. Ab. 209; 1 P. Wms. 696. (c) 2 B. & Ald. 301. (d) 1 B. & C. 16.

(e) *Chamberlain v. Napier*, 15 Ch. D. 614. *Cf. Bernard v. White*, W. N. 1887, p. 8; and now see 45 & 46 Vict. c. 61, s. 72 (4) (Bills of Exchange Act, 1882.)

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Construction.

tention to regulate a marriage settlement by a particular law may of course be expressed in plain terms.(a)

The question was mooted in the modern case of *Dent v. Smith* (b) under the following circumstances. The plaintiffs had effected an insurance with the defendants on certain specie on board a vessel owned and registered in England at the time of the execution of the policy, for the voyage from London to Constantinople. Before the ship sailed she was sold to a Russian company, and the requisite formalities to effect a change of her nationality accordingly were duly complied with. She sailed under the Russian flag, and was stranded near Gallipoli before reaching her destination. The specie was saved, and was taken charge of by the nearest Russian consul until the rights of the owners of the ship and cargo should be adjusted according to Russian law, which prevailed within Turkish territory as to Russian subjects and Russian property by special treaty provisions with the Porte. The owners of the specie, in order to regain possession of it, were ultimately compelled to pay a much larger sum, under the name of salvage or general average, than would have been imposed upon them if the loss had been adjusted according to English law; and the question was whether this was a loss within the meaning of the words of the policy which the underwriters were compelled to make good. It was assumed in the course of the argument that English law, as the *lex loci celebrationis*, must govern the interpretation of the policy; and Cockburn, C.J., expressed his assent to the proposition that the English law must govern, though not expressly to the reason given.(c) The decision was against the underwriters, apparently on the ground that, whether the policy was construed by English law or not, the loss was one fairly covered by its provisions; but with respect to the question of the alleged right of the English law to prevail as the *lex loci celebrationis*, it should be observed that the

(a) As in *Hernando v. Sautell*, 27 Ch. D. 284.

(b) L. R. 4 Q. B. 414.

(c) L. R. 4 Q. B. 432, 445.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Construction.

vessel was English when the policy was effected, and that, if her nationality had not been changed, the English law, instead of the Russian, would have regulated the rights of the parties in the event of the loss which happened; so that the opinion expressed by Cockburn, C.J., in favour of the English law as the law to govern the interpretation of the policy, may be referred as much to the undoubted intention of the parties as to the fact that the contract was made in England. And it has since been clearly held that although it is competent to an underwriter on an English policy to stipulate that it shall be construed or applied in whole or in part according to a particular foreign law, yet, except when so stipulated, the English law is to prevail.(a) In *King of Spain v. Machado*,(b) a much older case, it appears to have been assumed that any instrument executed abroad was to be construed according to the law of the country where it was executed. It is undeniable, therefore, that although in theory the place of execution is only one of the proofs which are admitted to show the intention of the parties, nevertheless, with regard to the interpretation and construction of their language, it is difficult to find any case in which the testimony furnished by it has not been held conclusive. In *Cood v. Cood* (c) the law of the domicil of the contracting parties was called in by Lord Romilly to construe the language used; but in that case the English law, the law of the domicil, was also the law of the place where the letter containing the ambiguous language was despatched, nor were the reasons given for the preference of that particular law (which was also, of course, the *lex fori*) very clearly expressed. The subject-matter of the correspondence was the partition of the real and personal estate of a testator in Chili; and, though the question whether the letters amounted to a binding contract was decided in the manner just described, the decision was apparently arrived at after a general survey of the cir-

(a) *Greer v. Poole*, 5 Q. B. D. 272.
(c) 33 Beav. 314.

(b) 4 Russ. 225, 239.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Construction.*

Interpretation
by local
custom—
analogous to
local law.

cumstances, including the fact that part of the property affected was land situate abroad.

There is a certain analogy, which is referred to by Story,^(a) between the relation of the local law to a contract celebrated abroad, and that of the local custom to an agricultural or commercial contract entered into in some particular part of England; but it is only an analogy, and must not be pressed too far. Local custom in England may be regarded, within its territorial limits, as part of the Common Law by adoption, and the law, in following it, merely obeys itself; but there is an obvious distinction between this principle and that which requires English law to accept the interpretation and explication of a law wholly foreign to itself. The latter rule can only be defended on the ground that it is the English law that every man's lawful contract shall be interpreted by reference to his intention, and on the further ground that a man who contracts abroad intends that the interpretation of the foreign law shall be invoked. The rule is not, therefore, an absolute one, and will be excluded by proof that the intention did not in fact exist; while the rule that English contracts are to be construed with reference to every proved local custom is imperative, and the operation of the custom is only excluded by express stipulation to that effect, or by something in the contract wholly inconsistent with its admission.^(b) It should be observed, however, that customs affecting the land, as those relating to agricultural tenancy, are the only customs that can strictly be called local; and even these are not incorporated with the contract as essential to its interpretation because the *contract is made* in a particular locality, but because the subject-matter of the contract is there situate. A lease of English land made abroad would certainly be construed with reference to the agricultural customs of the country where the land was situated. It therefore appears hardly justi-

^(a) Story, § 270.

^(b) *Wiglesworth v. Dallison*, Dougl. 201; *Hutton v. Warren*, 1 M. & W. 474; *Myers v. Sarl*, 3 E. & E. 306.

fiable to cite the English law as to the effect of agricultural customs upon contracts as an authority for the proposition that the true interpretation of a contract must be according to the usage of the country where it was made.(a) And the custom which is imported into many commercial contracts, which have no relation to the soil, is not the custom of a particular locality as such, but the custom of a particular trade, market, profession, or association;(b) in which case its operation is no doubt admitted wholly on the ground of the intention of the parties, but does not in any way show that the law of the place where a contract is made has of its own nature any claim to express that intention. The correct view was clearly stated by Lord Kingsdown in a case before the Privy Council in 1859.(c) "When evidence of the usage of a particular place is admitted, to add to or in any manner affect the construction of a written contract, it is admitted only on the ground that the parties who made the contract are both cognizant of the usage, and must be presumed to have made their agreement with reference to it. But no such presumption can arise when one of the parties is ignorant of it." The analogy, in fact, which exists between these cases, in which no conflict of law arises, and cases properly belonging to the domain of private international law, is useful only as establishing this general proposition, that all contracts are to be interpreted according to the intention of the contracting parties, and that any rules, whether of local or commercial custom or foreign law, will be admitted to aid in the interpretation, if it appears that they were in the mind and intention of the parties when the contract was made.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.
*Contract—
Construction.*

(2) *Nature and Incidents of the Obligation of a Contract.*—The words by which the contract was entered into having been rightly interpreted and construed by the

Nature and incidents of obligation.

(a) Story, *Conflict of Laws*, § 270.

(b) *Hutchinson v. Tatham*, L. R. 8 C. P. 482; *Sutton v. Tatham*, 10 A. & E. 27; *Sweeting v. Pearce*, 30 L. J. C. P. 109; *Hunfrey v. Dale*, E. B. & E. 1004.

(c) *Kirchner v. Venus*, 12 Moo. P. C. 361, 399.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

Court, or the facts out of which it arose having been duly proved, and it being established that the formalities of celebration required by the *lex loci* were duly complied with, the next subject for inquiry is the nature of the obligation imposed. What is the law which is to measure and define the rights and liabilities of the parties to the contract? It has been already seen that with regard to the contract of marriage, Lord Campbell expressly (in *Brook v. Brook* (a)) assigned all the "essentials" of the contract to the *lex domicilii*, as the law of the place where the parties to the marriage contemplate performing the contract by residence. But it has been pointed out above (b) that there is an important distinction in this respect between the so-called contract of marriage and a contract in the strictly legal sense of the term. It is for the interest of every State, and therefore for the interest of States in general, that each should be left to determine for itself the exact nature of that which its domiciled subjects call marriage; and it is not in anything like the same degree the interest of every State to force its definition of the word upon those who, without residing in or being subject to it, temporarily invoke its assistance and authority to celebrate the contract, and constitute the relation. The *lex domicilii*, therefore, is rightly allowed to decide everything that relates to the marriage contract, except the forms of ceremonial; but with regard to other and ordinary contracts, the law of the place of performance has no title to a similar privilege. There are no analogous reasons of expediency and morality for permitting its supremacy in a contract, for example, of ordinary partnership; and the local law of a foreign country may rightly claim to say what shall be a sufficient cause to divorce the wife of one of its domiciled citizens, without thereby asserting its right to regulate the liabilities, *inter se*, of those merchants trading in it who entered into their contract of partnership in England. Accordingly, the general principle, to which we have seen that the contract

(a) 9 H. L. C. 193, 207.

(b) *Ante*, p. 345.

of marriage is an exception, has met with almost universal acceptance; and it is clear that the *vinculum*, or legal tie, which results from a contract is dependent solely upon the law by which the parties intended that it should be constituted. And here the distinction indicated by Sir R. Phillimore in *The Patria* (a) may be usefully referred to. All contracting parties do expressly contemplate one thing, *i.e.*, the performance of the contract. But the obligation which is created between them does in many cases, and may in all, involve certain consequences which were not as a matter of fact within their contemplation. Accidents which were unforeseen, as well as events foreseen but misunderstood, frequently bring about a state of things which the parties did not think of providing for; and it becomes absolutely necessary, in order to ascertain their respective rights and liabilities, to inquire by what law the nature and incidents of the obligation are determined. In other words, to what law must the parties be assumed to have submitted themselves? what law must they be assumed to have had in their minds when they contracted? It is obvious that there may be a distinction between the considerations applicable to events not contemplated by the contract, and those applicable to events not only contemplated, but expressly provided for. It is proposed to treat of the first branch of the subject under the present heading, and to defer the latter until the proper place for considering the question of performance.

With regard, then, to the nature of the obligation itself, and to the incidents which arise in the course of its development, there must be some one law which the parties intended to be referred to, should necessity arise. This law is determined in different cases by different considerations, but the rule most generally adopted undoubtedly is, that the law of the place where a contract is made must govern the relation which arises out of it. (b)

(a) L. R. 3 A. & E. 462.

(b) *Jacobs v. Crédit Lyonnais*, 12 Q. B. D. 589, 599; *Ex parte Dever, Re Suse and Smith*, 18 Q. B. D. 660; *Greer v. Poole*, 5 Q. B. D. 272; ante, pp. 384, 385.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

This is not the rule, however, because of any inherent right or obligatory force in that law, but because that is the law to which the *intention* of the parties must *prima facie* be supposed to have looked. The local law, however, may, of course, be excluded by express or implied words, (a) but no reference to a foreign law will be extended to an adoption of that law generally. On the contrary, apparently on the principle that *expressio unius est exclusio alterius*, such references are strictly construed. A policy of insurance by which the company agreed to pay to the wife for her sole use, in conformity with an American statute, was held not to incorporate the provisions of the same statute as to the rights of the husband's creditors. (b) The same principle has been applied to policies of marine insurance. (c)

In the case of *Peninsular and Oriental Steam Company v. Shand*, (d) where the contract was made in England for the carriage of a passenger with luggage from Southampton to the Mauritius, and it was contended that the liability of the carriers was governed by the French law in force there, it was said by Turner, L.J., in delivering the judgment of the Privy Council: "The general rule is that the law of the country where a contract is made governs as to the nature, the obligation, and the interpretation of it. The parties to a contract are either the subjects of the Power there ruling, or as temporary residents owe it a temporary allegiance; in either case equally they must be understood to submit to the law there prevailing, and to agree to its action upon their contract. . . . Their lordships are speaking of the general rule; there are, no doubt, exceptions and limitations on its applicability, but the present case is not affected by these." The nature of these exceptions and limitations is indicated more clearly in the judgment of the Exchequer Chamber in *Lloyd v. Guibert* (e): "It is generally agreed that the law of the

(a) See, for examples, *The Leon XIII.*, 8 P. D. 121; *The Nina*, L. R. 2 A. & E. 44. (b) *Ex parte Dever, Re Suse and Smith*, 18 Q. B. D. 660.

(c) *Greer v. Poole*, 5 Q. B. D. 272.

(d) 3 Moo. P. C. N. S. 272.

(e) L. R. 1 Q. B. 115, 122.

place where the contract is made is *prima facie* that which the parties intended, or ought to be presumed to have adopted, as the footing upon which they dealt, and that such law ought to prevail in the absence of circumstances indicating a different intention. As, for instance, that the contract is to be performed elsewhere, or that the subject-matter is immovable property situate in another country, and so forth; which latter, though sometimes treated as distinct rules, appear more properly to be classed as exceptions to the more general ones, by reason of the circumstances indicating an intention to be bound by a law different from the place where the contract is made." It is, of course, unimportant whether these cases for the application of a different law are to be regarded as exceptions to the general rule in favour of the *lex loci contractus celebrationis*, or as applications of a distinct principle in favour of the law of the place of performance. Both rules are consequences of the one primary principle, that the intention of the parties is to be followed in all matters with which it has a right to deal. That this primary principle is more especially applicable to incidents of the obligation which were not contemplated or provided for by the parties, is well shown by another passage from the same judgment: "In determining a question between contracting parties, recourse must first be had to the language of the contract itself; and (force, fraud, and mistake apart) the true construction of the language of the contract is the touchstone of legal right. It often happens, however, that disputes arise, not as to the terms of the contract, but as to their application to unforeseen questions, which arise incidentally or accidentally in the course of performance, and which the contract does not answer in terms, yet which are within the sphere of the relation established thereby, and cannot be decided as between strangers. In such cases it is necessary to consider by what general law the parties intended that the transaction should be governed, or rather to what general law it is just to presume that they

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

*Lex loci
celebrationis
prima facie
the governing
law.*

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Incidents.*

have submitted themselves in the matter. A familiar illustration of this will be found in the rule, that the lawful usages of a market are as much part of a contract entered into there, which does not expressly exclude them, as if they were set down at large. The binding force of such usages does not depend so much upon the knowledge of the parties *as upon implied acquiescence; for whose goes to Rome must do as those at Rome do.* So, in the absence of express provision or special usage, the general law itself, in many points of view only a more extended usage, supplies the gaps which the parties have left, and in doing so sometimes modifies the construction of general words in the contract."

The language of the Court of Appeal in a still more recent case is equally instructive: "There can be no hard-and-fast rule to construe the multifarious commercial agreements with which we have to deal. . . . In such a case" (speaking of contracts to be performed partly in one place and partly in another) "the only certain guide is to be found in applying sound ideas of business, convenience, and sense to the language of the contract itself, with a view of discovering from it the true intention of the parties. Even in respect of any performance that is to take place abroad, the parties may still have desired that their liabilities and obligations should be governed by English law."(a)

Exceptions of
lex loci
celebrationis.

So far as unforeseen incidents of the obligation are concerned, the principle appears plain enough; and it is clear that the law will generally have to supply the defective intention of the parties by presuming some law to have been intended generally; but, accepting it as a general rule that contracts are governed, in the development of their incidents subsequent to the making, by the law of the place of celebration, it must be remembered that is a rule peculiarly open to exceptions. The intention of the parties is the crucial test, and in contracts of

(a) *Jacobs v. Crédit Lyonnais*, 12 Q. B. D. 589. Cf. *Barnard v. White*, W. N. 1887, p. 8.

affreightment, for example, it has been decided that the intention of the parties is to submit themselves to the law of the ship's flag, so far at least as sea damage and its incidents are concerned. The principle seems, indeed, applicable to all unforeseen incidents of the obligation save those which arise out of performance. *Lloyd v. Guibert* (a) was a case in which the contract of affreightment was a charter-party entered into at St. Thomas, a Danish West India island, between a British subject as charterer and the master, acting for the French ship-owners, of a vessel then at St. Thomas, for a voyage from St. Marc in Hayti to Havre, London, or Liverpool (ultimately the latter), at the charterer's option. On the voyage to Liverpool the ship had to put into a Portuguese port for repair, and the captain there gave a bottomry bond upon the ship, freight, and cargo. On the ship's arrival at Liverpool, the holder of the bond sued upon it in the Court of Admiralty. The ship and freight were insufficient to satisfy the bond; and the deficiency with costs fell on the plaintiff as owner of the cargo, for which he sought indemnity against the defendants, the French shipowners. By the law of France abandonment of the ship and freight absolved the defendants from all further liability on the contract of the master, and they had in fact so abandoned the ship and freight to the plaintiff as owner of the cargo. By the English law they would have been liable to indemnify the plaintiff, notwithstanding the fact of such abandonment. It was contended for the plaintiff that the decision ought to proceed either (i.) upon what was called the "general maritime law," as regulating all maritime transactions between persons of different nationalities at sea; (ii.) upon the Danish law, as the *lex loci celebrationis*, the law of the place where the contract was made; (iii.) upon the Portuguese law, as the law of the place where the bottomry bond was given (though it is difficult to see how this could have been called in to regulate the rights of the parties on a contract made

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.
Contract—
Incidents.
Contracts of
affreightment.

(a) L. R. 1 Q. B. 115.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

before the ship came into a Portuguese port, and without any expectation of her doing so); or (iv.) the English law, as being that of the place of final performance by the delivery of the cargo, the *lex loci solutionis*. By all these laws the liability of the defendants was established. The French law alone was relied on on behalf of the defendants; and it was contended that this law must be applied either because the character of the transaction itself showed that the plaintiff impliedly submitted his goods to the operation of the law of the ship, and therefore contracted with reference to it; or else upon the ground that the master, who entered into the contract (although in doing so he acted within the scope of his authority from the owners), was disabled by the French law from binding his owners, otherwise than with the exception, expressed or implied, of exemption from liability after abandonment, and that the French flag was sufficient notice of such disability. It was held that the parties must, under the circumstances, be taken to have contracted with reference to the law of France, and not to that of the place where the contract was made (the Danish), or to the law of England as the place of performance. The general rule was laid down by Willes, J., that where the contract of affreightment does not provide otherwise, then as between the parties to such contract, in respect of sea damage and its incidents, the law of the ship must govern; and it was said that this rule was not only in accordance with the probable intention of the parties, but also most consistent, intelligible, and convenient to those engaged in commerce. The judgment of the Exchequer Chamber, delivered by Willes, J., after laying down the general rule that the question is in such cases by what law the parties intended that the transaction should be governed, or rather to what law it is just to presume that they submitted themselves, proceeded as follows:—

Judgment in
Lloyd v.
Guibert.

“In the diversity or conflict of laws, which ought to prevail is a question that has called forth an amazing

amount of ingenuity and many differences of opinion. It is, however, generally agreed that the law of the place where the contract is made is *prima facie* that which the parties intended, or ought to be presumed to have adopted, as the footing upon which they dealt, and that such law ought therefore to prevail in the absence of circumstances indicating a different intention, as, for instance, that the contract is to be entirely performed elsewhere, or that the subject-matter is immovable property situate in another country, and so forth; which latter, though sometimes treated as distinct rules, appear more properly to be classed as exceptions to the more general one, by reason of the circumstances indicating an intention to be bound by a law different from that of the place where the contract is made; which intention is inferred from the subject-matter and from the surrounding circumstances, so far as they are relevant to construe and determine the character of the contract.

“The present question does not appear to have ever been decided in this country, and in America it has received opposite decisions equally entitled to respect.(a) We must therefore deal with it as a new question, and endeavour to be guided in its solution by a steady application of the general principle already stated, viz., that the rights of the parties to a contract are to be judged of by that law by which they intended, or rather by which they may justly be presumed, to have bound themselves.

“We must apply this test successively to the various laws which have been suggested as applicable; and first to the alleged general maritime law.

“We can understand this term in the sense of the general maritime law, as administered in the English courts, that being in truth nothing more than English law, though dealt out in somewhat different measures in the Common Law and Chancery Courts and in the peculiar jurisdiction of the Admiralty; but as to any other general maritime

(a) *Arayo v. Currell*, 1 Louis. Rep. 528; *Pope v. Nickerson*, 3 Story, Rep. 465.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

law by which we ought to adjudicate upon the rights of a subject of a country which by the hypothesis does not recognise its alleged rule, we were not informed what may be its authority, its limits, or its sanction. Passing over the common ground of ethics and the elementary ideas of natural law (*jus gentium*), such as the rights of prior occupancy and self-preservation, the privileges and exemption of necessity, the common duties of humanity, of more or less perfect obligation, the idea of property, including the obligation of contracts, and those obligations for the most part conventional upon which is based the modern system of international law (*jus inter gentes*): inasmuch as these supply no precise rule for the matter in hand—it would be difficult to maintain that there is, as to such questions as the present, depending in a great measure upon national policy and economy, any general in the sense of universal law, binding at sea, any more than upon land, nations which either have not assented or have withdrawn their assent thereto.

“Moreover, we are not satisfied that there is any such general concurrence of mankind, that shipowners should be absolutely answerable personally for the acts of the master. Pothier (*sur la Charte-partie*, part 1, No. 34) was cited in the affirmative, and Emerigon (*Contrat à la grosse*, c. 4, s. 11) upon the negative rule. Pothier, founding his interpretation upon the civil law *de exercitorid actione* (see *Valin, Sur l'Ordonnance*, liv. 2, tit. 8, art. 2), thought that the clause of the celebrated *Ordonnance de la Marine* of 1681 (liv. 2, tit. 8, art. 2), from which art. 216 of the *Code de Commerce* was taken, applied only to illicit acts of the master, and that upon his contracts the owner was liable and could not get rid of liability by abandonment. Emerigon, on the other hand, founding his opinion upon the general rule of maritime law as he understood it, thought that from liability for all acts of the master, whether licit or illicit, including contracts, the owner could free himself by abandonment. The jurisprudence of the Court of Cassation leant towards the opinion of

Pothier, and that led in 1841 to the modification of art. 216 to its present shape, by which, according to the statement of the learned annotator in *Sirey's Code de Commerce annoté*, by Gilbert, note 18 upon art. 216, the opinion of Emerigon is now established in France. To this may be added that similar, though not identical, provisions for the protection of the owner are to be found in other Codes—for instance, that of Spain (*Código de Comercio*, art. 621, 622) and Prussia (*Allgemeines Deutsches Handelsgesetzbuch*, art. 451, 452, 453, and the following).

PART III
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

“This is sufficient to show that there is no general uniform rule in maritime law upon the subject; indeed, looking at home, there seems little, if any, difference in principle between the French law under consideration and our own statutory provisions for limited liability in respect of obligations by reason of collision, which latter have now by express enactment been extended to collision between British and foreign vessels (25 & 26 Vict. c. 63, s. 54; *The Amalia* (a)).

“In truth, any general, much more any universal maritime law, binding upon all nations using the highway of the sea in time of peace, except when limited as administered in some court, is easier longed for than found. Accordingly, we observe that both the very learned judge of the Court of Admiralty and the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, in deciding, in the case of *The Hamburg* (*Duranty v. Hart*),^(b) that the validity of a bottomry bond given in a foreign port was to be determined by the general maritime law, and not by the law of the ship or the port where the bond was given, added to the expression, ‘the general maritime law,’ this qualification, viz., ‘as administered in England.’ That case was cited as an authority, and at first sight it appeared to be one for applying English law to the present case, but upon consideration it appears altogether distinguishable. The

(a) 1 Moo. P. C. N. S. 471; 32 L. J. P. & A. 191.

(b) 2 Moo. P. C. N. S. 289; 33 L. J. P. & A. 116.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

alleged agency of the master in that case was founded upon necessity alone, and it was incumbent upon the bondholder to establish such necessity by evidence; and in order to do that he was bound (according to the rule prevailing since the case of *The Bonaparte* (a)) to show a communication with the owner of the cargo, that being, as the Court held, reasonably practicable. So that the *lex fori* was undoubtedly supreme upon the question which then arose, it being one of evidence and procedure. Had the decision been intended to go further, the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council would probably have considered and compared the case of *Cammell v. Sewell*, (b) and pointed out the distinction in this respect between a hypothecation in case of necessity, and a sale in case of necessity, which, according to the decision of the majority of the Court in *Cammell v. Sewell*, against the opinion of Byles, J., depends for its validity upon the law of the place where the sale was made, and not the general maritime law as administered in England; upon which, however, we offer no opinion.

"In one other point of view the general maritime law as administered in England or (to avoid periphrasis) the law of England, viz., as the law of the contemplated place of final performance or port of discharge, remains to be considered. It is manifest, however, that what was to be done at Liverpool (besides that it might at the charterer's option have been done at Havre) was but a small portion of the entire service to be rendered, and that the character of the contract cannot be determined thereby. It is true that, as to the mode of delivery, the usages of Liverpool would govern, as those of Algiers did in *Robertson v. Jackson*, (c) and as in the mode of taking on board the cargo the usage of the port of loading would be regarded (see *Hudson v. Clementson*, (d) and the custom set out in the pleadings in *Gattorno v. Adams*, (e) which custom was

(a) 8 Moo. P. C. 459.

(c) 2 C. B. 412.

(e) 12 C. B. N. S. 560.

(b) 5 H. & N. 728; 29 L. J. Ex. 350.

(d) 18 C. B. 213; 25 L. J. C. P. 234.

proved at the trial at Guildhall sittings after Michaelmas term, 1862, and made an end of the case). And in this point of view it seems impossible to exclude the law of England, or even that of Hayti, from relevancy in respect of the manner of performing that portion of the service contracted for which was to be rendered in their respective territories; because the ship must needs, for the time being, conform to the usages of the port where she is, and for a like reason the adjustment of a general average at the port of discharge, according to the law prevailing there, is binding upon the shipowner and the merchant, who must be taken to have assented to adjustment being made at the usual and proper place, and, as a consequence, according to the law of that place : *Simonds v. White*.^(a)

“It is unnecessary, however, to discuss this point further, because we have been anticipated and the question set at rest in an instructive judgment of the Judicial Committee, delivered by the Lord Justice Turner, since the argument of the present case, in that of *Peninsular and Oriental Company v. Shand*,^(b) where a passenger in an English vessel from Southampton to Mauritius, where French law prevails, sued the shipowners for the loss of his luggage upon an alleged liability by the French law, from which liability the shipowner was exempt by the English law; and the passenger obtained judgment in his favour in the Mauritius court, which judgment was reversed upon appeal by the Judicial Committee, their lordships holding that the law of England governed the case.

“Next, as to the law of Portugal : the only semblance of authority for resorting to that law, as being the law of the place where the bottomry bond was given, is the case already referred to of *Cammell v. Sewell*,^(c) and we consider that the judgment in that case, if applicable at all, as to which we say nothing, could only affect the validity of the bottomry, and not the duties imposed upon the shipowner towards the merchant by the fact of the bottomry, which

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Incidents.*

^(a) 4 B. & C. 805.

^(b) 3 Moo. P. C. N. S. 272.

^(c) 5 H. & N. 728; 25 L. J. Ex. 350.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

duties must be traced to the contract of affreightment and the bailment founded thereupon.

“The law of Hayti was not mentioned nor relied upon in argument, and there remain only to be considered the laws of Denmark and of France, between which we must choose.

“In favour of the law of Denmark there is the cardinal fact that the contract was made within Danish territory, and further that the first act done towards performance was weighing anchor in a Danish port.

“For the law of France, on the other hand, many practical considerations may be suggested; and, first, the subject-matter of the contract, the employment of a sea-going vessel for a service the greater and more onerous part of which was to be rendered upon the high seas, where, for all purposes of jurisdiction, criminal or civil, with respect to all persons, things, and transactions on board, she was as it were a floating island, over which France had as absolute and, for all purposes of peace, as exclusive a sovereignty as over her dominions by land; and which, even whilst in a foreign port, according to notions of jurisdiction adopted by this country (18 & 19 Vict. c. 91, s. 21; 24 & 25 Vict. c. 94, s. 9) and carried to a greater length abroad (Ortolan, *Diplomatie de la Mer*, c. xiii., the work of a French naval officer, but of which a jurist might well be proud), was never completely removed from French jurisdiction.

“Further, it must be remembered that, although bills of lading are ordinarily given at the port of loading, charter-parties are often made elsewhere, and it seems strange and unlikely to have been within the contemplation of the parties, that their rights or liabilities in respect of the identical voyage should vary, first, according as the vessel was taken up at the port of loading or not, and, secondly, if she were taken up elsewhere, according to the law of the place where the charter-party was made or even ratified. If a Frenchman had chartered the *Olivier* upon the same terms as the plaintiff did, it would seem strange if he

could appeal to Danish law against his own countrymen, because of the charterparty being made or ratified in a Danish port, though for a service to be rendered elsewhere, by a transient visitor, for the most part within French jurisdiction.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Incidents.*

“Moreover, there are many ports which have few or no seagoing vessels of their own, and no fixed maritime jurisprudence, and which yet supply valuable cargoes to the ships of other countries. Take Alexandria, for instance, with her mixed population, and her maritime commerce almost in the hands of strangers. Is every vessel that leaves Alexandria with grain under a charterparty or bill of lading made there, and every passenger vessel leaving Alexandria or Suez, be she English, Austrian, or French, subject to Egyptian law? As to not a few half-savage places in Africa and Asia, with neither seagoing ships nor maritime laws, a similar question arises—what is the law in such cases, or is there none, except that of the Court within whose jurisdiction the litigation first arises?

“Again, it may be asked, does a ship which visits many ports in one voyage, whilst she undoubtedly retains the criminal law of her own country, put on a new sort of civil liability at each new country she visits in respect of cargo there taken on board? An English steamer, for instance, starts from Southampton for Gibraltar, calling at Vigo, Lisbon, and Cadiz. A Portuguese going in her from Southampton to Vigo would naturally expect to sail subject in all respects to English law, that being the law of the place and the ship. But if the locality of the contract is to govern throughout, an Englishman going from Vigo to Lisbon on the same voyage would be under English law as to crimes and all obligations not connected with the contract of carriage, but under Spanish law as to the contract of carriage; and a Spaniard, going from Lisbon to Cadiz during the same voyage, would enjoy Portuguese law as to his carriage, and be subject to English law in other respects. The cases which we have

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Incidents.*

thus put are not extreme nor exceptional; on the contrary, they are such as would ordinarily give rise to the question, which law is to prevail? The inconvenience and even absurdities which would follow from adopting the law of the place of contract in preference to that of the vessel, are strong to prove that the latter ought to be resorted to.

“No inconvenience comparable to that which would attend an opposite decision has been suggested. The ignorance of French law on the part of the charterer is no more than many Englishmen contracting in England with respect to English matters might plead as to their own law, in case of an unforeseen accident.

“Nor can we allow any weight to the argument that this is an impolitic law, as tending to interfere with commerce, especially in making merchants cautious how they engage foreign vessels. That is a matter for the consideration of foreigners themselves, and nothing short of a violation of natural justice, or of our own laws, could justify us in holding a foreign law void because of being impolitic. No doubt the French law was intended to encourage shipping by limiting the liability of shipowners, and in this respect it goes somewhat further than our own; but whether wisely or not is matter within the competence and for the consideration of the French Legislature, and upon which, sitting here, we ought to pronounce no opinion.

“Exceptional cases, should they arise, must be dealt with upon their own merits. In laying down a rule of law, regard ought rather to be had to the majority of cases upon which doubt and litigation are more likely to arise; and the general rule that, where the contract of affreightment does not provide otherwise, there, as between the parties to such contract, in respect of sea damage and its incidents, the law of the ship should govern, seems to be not only in accordance with the probable intention of the parties, but also most consistent and intelligible, and therefore most convenient to those engaged in commerce.

“In order to preclude all misapprehension, it may be well to add that a party who relies upon a right or an exemption by foreign law is bound to bring such law properly before the Court, and to establish it in proof. Otherwise the Court, not being entitled to notice such law without judicial proof, must proceed according to the law of England (see *Brown v. Gracey*, note to *Lacom v. Higgins*”).(a)

The principle on which the judgment in *Lloyd v. Guibert* was given, that contracts of affreightment entered into in a foreign port are made with reference to the law of the ship's flag, so far as the nature and incidents of the obligation are concerned, would probably not have met with the approval of Mr. Westlake. In commenting on an American case (*Pope v. Nickerson*, 3 Story, Rep. 465), decided on facts almost identical with those in *Lloyd v. Guibert*, that writer expresses a strong opinion, first, that the case of a master contracting in a foreign port is the same as if the owner himself were present (which is not questioned); and secondly, that the obligation between the charterer and the shipowner must be measured by the law of the place where the charterparty is entered into,(b) or, if by any other law, by the law of the port of delivery, as the place of performance. The American case referred to was that of a vessel, owned in Massachusetts, and engaged in a voyage from Spain to a port in Pennsylvania. On the way she was compelled by stress of weather to put into Bermuda, where the master sold her with the whole cargo; and the question was, what law governed the right of the shipper against the owner to recover the value of his consignment?—i.e., the nature and incidents of the obligation arising out of the contract of affreightment? Judge Story decided in favour of the Massachusetts law, as the law of the flag. “I do not perceive,” says Westlake, “what difference the flag makes, since the contract for carriage was neither made nor to be fully executed on

(a) D. & R. N. P. 41, n. See *infra*, Chap. X. (v.).

(b) Westlake, §§ 212, 216.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.Intention of
parties to
contracts of
affreightment.

the high seas. . . . Surely the law to be applied is either that of Spain or Pennsylvania, for the owners must be taken to have contracted in the one country to carry the goods to the other?"

The light thrown upon the true principle by the subsequent decision in *Lloyd v. Guibert* (a) enables the reader to detect the error in Westlake's argument. The assumption is, that the obligation of a contract must be measured by the law of the contract, and that this law can only be the law of the place of celebration, or of the place of performance. It has been already shown (b) that this is not the rule. The true rule is, that the obligation of a contract must be measured by the law to which the parties intended to refer, or must be assumed to have submitted themselves. (c) And this law, though it may be, and most generally is, the law of the place where the contract is entered into, is not so necessarily, or by any *præsumptio jure de jure*, which would be incontrovertible. *Prima facie* it is that law, but evidence is admissible to show that it is any other. In the words of Willes, J., which have been already cited, "It is generally agreed that the law of the place where the contract is made is *prima facie* that which the parties intended, or ought to be presumed to have adopted as the footing upon which they dealt, and that such law ought therefore to prevail in the absence of circumstances indicating a different intention." (d) Now, the essence of the decision in *Lloyd v. Guibert* is that, in every contract of affreightment, there are such circumstances. (e) Contracts of affreightment may be made in half-savage or barbarous ports, or even, to take a more familiar instance, in such places as Alexandria, where it would be absurd to hold that the parties intended their mutual rights to be regulated by the local maritime law of the place of affreightment. It might

(a) L. R. 1 Q. B. 115.

(b) *Ante*, p. 389.(c) *Ante*, p. 390.(d) *Lloyd v. Guibert*, L. R. 1 Q. B. 115, 122.(e) *The Patria*, L. R. 3 A. & E. 436, was decided by the express stipulations of the contract, and cannot be regarded as an authority for any one competing law.

possibly be convenient to refer in all cases to the law of the port of delivery, as the place of performance; but the fatal objection at once arises that this is a detail which is frequently left uncertain, to be determined either upon signing bills of lading, or upon calling at some named port for orders; as for example in *Lloyd v. Guibert* (a) itself, where the vessel was chartered to carry either to Havre, London, or Liverpool, at the charterer's option. The choice of the law of the flag of the vessel—i.e., the law of her owner—appears therefore, as was said in that case, “not only in accordance with the probable intention of the parties, but also most consistent and intelligible, and therefore most convenient to those engaged in commerce.”(b)

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

Nor is the case of a contract of affreightment the only one in which the law of the *locus actus* or *celebrationis* is presumed to have been left out of the intention of the parties. Another instance is that of a bottomry bond, given in a foreign port, and sued on in England. The obligation so created, as well as the incidents of the relation arising out of it, is now referred to the law of the flag,(c) but was formerly held to be governed by the “general maritime law, as administered in England,” and this whether the vessel on which the bottomry bond is given was English or foreign.(d) It cannot be said that this position was altogether free from some uncertainty and difficulty. The language employed in *Duranty v. Hart*, both by the judge of the Admiralty Court and by the Privy Council, is in itself free from ambiguity, except so far as it is doubtful whether the expression “general maritime law, as administered in England,” means English

Bottomry
bonds.

(a) L. R. 1 Q. B. 115.

(b) *Ibid.* at p. 129. In the case of *Re Missouri Steamship Co.* (C. A.), W. N. 1889, p. 90, the law of the flag was followed, not because it was the law of the flag, but because of the evident intention of the parties.

(c) *The Gaetano and Maria*, 7 P. D. 1, 137.

(d) *The Karnak*, L. R. 2 P. C. 505; *The Hamburg*, B. & L. 253; *Duranty v. Hart*, 2 Moo. P. C. N. S. 289; B. & L. 253, 319; *The Gratitude*, 3 C. Rob. 240. As to the meaning of the expression “the general maritime law as administered in England,” see *The Gaetano and Maria*, L. R. 7 P. D. 137; *Lloyd v. Guibert*, L. R. 1 Q. B. 125; and *The Segredo*, 1 E. & Ad. 45.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

law *simpliciter* or not. But in *Lloyd v. Guibert*,^(a) on appeal before the Exchequer Chamber, the case was fully discussed, and is there said to be no authority for the law of the place where the contract was made, or for that of the place of performance, but merely an instance of the supremacy of the *lex fori* in matters of procedure and evidence. This conclusion is arrived at by considering that the validity of the bond in that case depended upon the agency of the master, and that the agency of the master, by English law, depended upon the *necessity* of his act; and that therefore the question was one of evidence, inasmuch as the English law did not consider the agency shown unless it was shown that the master acted of necessity without communicating with his owner. It is difficult to assent to the view that this is a question of evidence or procedure. All the facts were admissible, and all were proved; the question was simply as to the validity of the bond. To say that the Court will not recognise its validity, unless some other fact is proved, seems very like demanding to test that validity by its own law, and not by that of the place where the contract was made, or (in *Duranty v. Hart*)^(b) by the law of the country to which the ship belonged.

It can scarcely be denied, therefore, that the judges of the Privy Council, as well as the judge of the Admiralty Court, considered themselves, in *Duranty v. Hart*, to be following an established principle that the validity of a bottomry bond was to be decided by the general maritime law, as administered in England. Whether this be the correct effect of the case, or whether they were in truth deciding a question of evidence and procedure alone, according to the opinion expressed of their judgment in *Lloyd v. Guibert* is of little consequence.^(c) The simplest and most intelligible view is taken in Maclachlan on Shipping,^(d) that the law actually followed did not govern the

(a) L. R. 1 Q. B. 125.

(b) 2 Moo. P. C. N. S. 289; S. C. *sub. nom.* *The Hamburg*, B. & L. 253; 33 L. J. Ad. 116.

(c) L. R. 1 Q. B. 125.

(d) At p. 161.

case, and that the case must be regarded as overruled by *Lloyd v. Guibert*.^(a) And this was undoubtedly the ground of the later decision in *The Karnak*,^(b) where the Privy Council applied the doctrine of *Lloyd v. Guibert* to the very question at issue in *Duranty v. Hart*, holding that the validity of a bottomry bond, depending upon the action of the master in the foreign port where it was given, must be tested and ascertained, not by the "general maritime law, as administered in England," but by the law of the flag. "It was laid down in *Lloyd v. Guibert*," said Sir William Erle,^(c) "that the captain's authority is derived from, and bounded by, the municipal law of the country to which the ship belongs—that is, by the law of the flag; and Willes, J., delivering the judgment of the Exchequer Chamber, answers an argument, founded on the supposition of a general maritime law, contradistinguished from the municipal law of this country, by refusing to recognise the existence of a maritime law in that sense. *In accordance with the principle there laid down*, their Lordships consider that the existence of the necessity which validates the hypothecation of cargo by bottomry is to be ascertained by evidence in the usual manner; and that the meaning of the term 'necessity' in respect of hypothecation by the master is analogous to its meaning in other parts of the law."

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

Authority of
master limited
by law of flag.

The most recent decision in the Court of Appeal on the subject seems to be entirely in accordance with this principle. In the case referred to ^(d) it was held that the authority of the master to execute a bottomry bond depended upon the law of the flag, and not upon "general maritime law," which had been preferred in the Court below. The language of Brett, L.J., in this case shows the distinction between "general maritime law" and "general maritime law, as administered in England." The latter is, in substance, English maritime law. Apart from the exceptional case of the master of a ship, the ordinary rule as to

(a) L. R. 1 Q. B. 115.

(b) L. R. 2 P. C. 505.

(c) *Ibid.* p. 512. See the judgment of Willes, J., cited *ante*, p. 394.

(d) *The Gaetano and Maria*, 7 P. D. 1, 137.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

the authority of an agent would seem to refer its nature and extent to the authority of the place where he is found acting.(a)

The principle of *Lloyd v. Guibert*, that the master's authority is defined and limited by the law of his flag, is therefore now to be regarded as applying to all contracts made by him, and as extending as well to contracts of hypothecation by means of bottomry bonds as to contracts of affreightment. In the words of Blackburn, J., in *Lloyd v. Guibert*,(b) "So far as regards the implied authority of the master of a ship to bind his owners personally, the flag of the ship is notice to all the world that the master's authority is conferred by the law of that flag; and that his mandate is contained in the law of that country with which those who deal with him must make themselves acquainted at their peril." An examination of the judgment of the Exchequer Chamber in this case(c) will show that the operation of the law of the flag is not confined to the question whether the master had or had not authority to contract at all. It is intended to do more than this; and its right is now asserted to regulate the liabilities and regulations which arise amongst the parties to the agreement, be it of affreightment or hypothecation, upon this principle—that the shipowner who sends his vessel into a foreign port gives notice by his flag to all who enter into contracts there with the shipmaster, that he intends the law of that flag to regulate those contracts, and that they must either submit to its operation, or not contract with him or his agent at all.(d) To this large extent it must therefore be regarded as an exception to the *prima facie* rule that the nature and incidents of an

(a) *Maspons y Hermano v. Mildred*, 9 Q. B. D. 530, 539.

(b) 6 B. & S. 117; *MacLachlan on Shipping*, p. 161; *Kay's Law of Shipmasters*, p. 555; *The Karnak*, L. R. 2 P. C. 505.

(c) Cited *ante*, p. 394.

(d) *The Karnak*, L. R. 2 P. C. 505; *Lloyd v. Guibert*, L. R. 1 Q. B. 115; S. C. 6 B. & S. 117; *The Osmanli*, 2 Notes of Case, 322; *The North Star*, 29 L. J. Ad. 73, 76. In the two last cases, however, the facts under consideration were such that the law of the flag was English—i.e., identical with the "general maritime law, as administered in England," advocated by the older decisions.

obligation depend upon the place where the contract is entered into.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

Law of the
flag and law
of owner's
domicil in
conflict.

The comments in *MacLachlan on Shipping* (pp. 167, 171) upon the distinction between the law of the ship's flag and the law of the domicil of the owner are, perhaps, superfluous. It is true that one or two expressions are used by Story in the American case, to which reference has already been made, (a) tending to confuse the law of the ship's flag with the law of the owner's domicil; but it must be remembered that in that case the two were identical, and that Story did not mean to pronounce for the law of the domicil as against the law of the flag is evident from several expressions in the judgment. "If the ship is owned and navigated under the flag of a foreign country, the authority of the master to contract for, and bind, the owners, must be measured by the laws of that country." (b) "The extent of the master's authority must be limited to the express instructions of the owners, or the law of the country *where the ship belongs and they reside*. . . . If by the law of the domicil of the ship and of the owners the authority of the master is limited to the ship and freight, and does not, in the absence of express instructions, bind the owners personally, it seems difficult to understand how resort can be had to the law of a foreign country, unknown and unsuspected (it may be) by the owners, to expand that authority." In the English case which has been so often referred to (c) there is certainly not even as much leaning as this towards the law of the owner's domicil, which is ignored altogether, although it was there also the law of the ship's flag. The fact that any British subject, wherever domiciled, may sail his ship under the British flag, and have her registered accordingly, as well as the further consideration that most British ships are divided amongst a plurality of owners, are illustrations of the impossibility of accepting the decision of the law of the owner's domicil in place of

(a) *Ante*, p. 403; *Pope v. Nickerson*, 3 Story, Rep. 465.

(b) *Ibid.* p. 475.

(c) *Lloyd v. Guibert*, L. R. 1 Q. B. 115.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

Bill of lading.

that of the ship's flag; and in face of the recent decisions it is most improbable that such a misapprehension will ever find an advocate for the future.

In *Blanchet v. Powell's Llantivitt Collieries Company*,^(a) the plaintiff sued for freight on a bill of lading made in France, and in answer to a plea that he did not carry all the goods mentioned in the bill of lading, pleaded (*inter alia*) that, according to the law of France, the whole freight was payable, although part only of the goods were carried and delivered. The replication was held good, Bramwell, B., saying that as the contract was made in France, the rights and obligations of the parties must be governed by French law. In this case it was suggested in argument that the law of France could not apply to a contract which was to be performed in England; but except so far as the mode and incidents of the delivery, as part of the performance, is concerned, it is clear that no authority is to be found for applying the *lex loci solutionis* without a special stipulation to that effect. It was not necessary to decide that the contract of affreightment was governed by French law, inasmuch as the plaintiff was held to be entitled to the lump freight by the law of England also. The reason, however, given for accepting the French law, viz., that the contract was made in France, does not seem to be consistent with the doctrine of *Lloyd v. Guibert*,^(b) which lays down that the law of the ship should govern as between the parties to a contract of affreightment, in respect of sea damage and its incidents. It is difficult to see why this rule should not equally be applied to the whole obligation of the contract, except so far as the law of the place of performance may properly claim to be heard; but the rule itself was not brought to the notice of the Court in *Blanchet v. Powell's Llantivitt Collieries Company*, nor did the nationality of the ship in fact appear to be other than French. The *dictum* is therefore of little importance, except as showing the general tendency to assume that the law of the place

(a) L. R. 9 Ex. 74, 77.

(b) L. R. 1 Q. B. 115.

of contract is *prima facie* that intended to govern its obligations and incidents.

The effect and operation of the contract of sale of a ship or cargo in a foreign port is generally considered in connection with the last branch of the subject, and the cases on the point may be here again briefly recapitulated, though they have already been treated of while considering the transfer of personal property generally. The only question which can well arise as to the contract of sale in such a case must be as to its validity, which is not, strictly speaking, part of the nature and incidents of an obligation at all. If a chattel is once duly sold, the property in it is passed once for all, and the obligation momentarily created, being completely fulfilled, ceases to exist. Consequently there can be no opportunity of questioning what law is to govern its future incidents and development. A sale, in fact, partakes more of the nature of an act than of a contract. It is an act preceded—sometimes only instantaneously preceded—by a contract, with which it is often confounded. There may, of course, be a contract *for* sale, the fulfilment of which is postponed or delayed; but the ordinary sale is intended to operate at once, and is, in fact, a mere transfer. As such, there would seem to be but little excuse for testing its validity, in an English Court, either by English law as the *lex fori*, or the maritime general law, if that can be regarded as at all distinguishable from the law administered in all cases in the English Court of Admiralty.^(a) Nor does it appear much more reasonable to refer the question to the law of the ship's flag, which the sale itself in most cases is intended to change. In cases of hypothecation or affreightment, the ship remains under the same flag during the whole existence of the obligation, and the intention of the parties may reasonably be presumed to have included submission to the law of which that flag gave notice. No such intention can be assumed, it is plain, in the case of a foreign purchaser in a foreign port.

PART III.
ACTS,

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

Sale in foreign
port.

(a) See per Willes, J., in *Lloyd v. Guibert*, L. R. 1 Q. B. 115, 125

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.English mari-
time law—
its authority.

The ship is a mere chattel, the ownership of which is changed by sale, according to the law of every nation, and directly the ownership is changed, the vessel's nationality is changed with it. It is scarcely probable that the purchaser would expect the validity of the change to be afterwards tested by the law which the transaction purported definitely to abandon.

It is, however, only recently that the principle indicated by the foregoing considerations has been recognised, and formerly the obviously incorrect course of preferring the *lex fori* was adopted. In the case of *The Segredo* or *Eliza Cornish*,^(a) the *lex loci actus* was definitely rejected by Dr. Lushington, and English maritime law, regarded as coincident in its application as to those particular facts with maritime law generally, followed in preference. It may be observed that the learned judge, in deciding this case, clearly intimated that he intended to follow, and conceived himself to be following, the *general* maritime law; and that he would not have deviated from it by introducing English municipal law, had a conflict arisen between them; but this distinction has been rendered of less importance by the *dictum* in *Lloyd v. Guibert* ^(b) as to the non-recognition of any *general* maritime law differing from "maritime law, as administered in England." It is, perhaps, after all merely a distinction of words. Those who advocate the existence and authority of a "general maritime law," mean in most cases a maritime law which is administered in English as well as in foreign Courts of Admiralty.^(c) It appears obvious that so much of this general maritime law, as administered in English Courts, is, by virtue of that very fact, English law; and it is not the less English because it is common to other foreign Courts of Admiralty as well as that of England. If it is suggested, as Sir R. Phillimore seems to imply, that the sources of its authority differ from those ordinarily cited in English Courts, and that it prevails by

^(a) 1 Eocl. & Ad. 36.^(b) L. R. 1 Q. B. 125.^(c) See per Sir R. Phillimore in *The Patria*, L. R. 3 A. & E. 461.

virtue of the comity of nations rather than by the binding force of English precedents, the argument appears scarcely warranted by facts. It would be difficult to cite an instance where a foreign decision on an analogous point has been allowed in an English Court of Admiralty to overrule English precedents of earlier date. Reference, it is true, has been constantly made to general European customs, and to regulations such as those contained in the Codes of Wisby and Oléron, but only for the purpose of enlarging the unwritten law of the Admiralty Court of England by analogy and example, and of supplying the deficiencies of its voice, when that was silent. The ordinary common law of the realm has similarly drawn nourishment from the jurisprudence of Rome, but it would be a misnomer to say that the *dicta* of Gaius, or the rescripts of Hadrian, ever spoke with a semblance of authority in English Courts. Authority is given to principles of foreign law or mercantile usage only by their adoption in an English Court.

The decision of Dr. Lushington in the *The Eliza Cornish* (a), however, was distinctly overruled by the Exchequer Chamber in *Cammell v. Sewell* (b) in 1860. There the master of a Prussian vessel, chartered in Russia by English shippers for Hull, and wrecked on the coast of Norway, sold the cargo without authority by English law, but under such circumstances that by the Norwegian law an innocent purchaser would have acquired a good title. It was argued that by the law maritime, general as well as English, the master had exceeded his authority, and that the sale was therefore invalid, but it was held (Byles, J., *dissentiente*) that the transaction, being a transfer of personal property, was governed by the *lex loci*; and that the title of the purchaser, being valid by that law, must stand. With regard to the case of *The Eliza Cornish* or *Segredo*, which was relied upon by the owners of the cargo, Crompton, J., delivering the judgment

Transfer good
by *lex loci*.

(a) 1 Ecol. & Ad. 36.

(b) 5 H. & N. 728; 29 L. J. Ex. 350; S. C. in Court below, 3 H. & N. 617; 27 L. J. Ex. 447.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

Transfer
distinguished
from
executory
contract.

of the Court, said, "If this case be an authority for the proposition that a law of a foreign country of the nature of the law of Norway, as proved in the present case, is not to be regarded by the Courts of this country, and that its effect as to passing property in the foreign country is to be disregarded, we cannot agree with the decision. . . . We think that the law on this subject was correctly stated by Pollock, C.B., in the course of the argument in the Court below, where he says that if personal property is disposed of in a manner binding according to the law of the country where it is, that disposition is binding everywhere. And we do not think that it makes any difference that the goods were wrecked, and were not intended to be sent to the country where they were sold." (a)

It has already been said that the decision in *Cammell v. Sewell* is entirely in accordance with the generally accepted theories which refer the validity of a transfer of movables *inter vivos* to the law of the place of transfer; (b) nor is the principle of that case in reality at all inconsistent with the ground of the judgment in *Lloyd v. Guibert*, (c) which has been so often referred to. The contract to which, in the latter case, the law of the ship's flag, and in the former, the law of the place of contract, was applied, was in truth not the same in any sense. The judgment in *Lloyd v. Guibert* applied the law of the ship's flag to the contract of affreightment made between the master, as agent of the owner in a foreign port, and the shipper; and *as between these parties*, the law of the flag was held to govern the incidents of the obligation throughout, though its results were varied by circumstances which had been unforeseen. In *Cammell v. Sewell* the relation between the shipowner and the freighters was not in question, and in an action by the owners of the cargo against the master or owner of the ship, the law of the flag might, quite consistently with the decision actually given, have been applied. The contract which

(a) 5 H. & N. 744, 745.
(c) 1. R. 1 Q. B. 165.

(b) *Ante*, p. 236.

was there referred to the local law, and held to be valid in accordance with its provisions, was not the contract between freighter and master, but *the contract of sale* between the master and the purchaser of the wrecked cargo in Norway. It was this contract, and no other, which the Court declared to be binding, because sanctioned and confirmed by the local law, not only upon the parties to it, but upon third persons—strangers, in the strict sense of the term, to its provisions. The proper result of applying the principle of the decision in *Lloyd v. Guibert* to the facts of *Cammell v. Sewell* would be, that the right of the owner of the cargo to sue the shipowner or master for the sale of the goods in Norway would be tested by Prussian law, as the law of the flag alone; and that it would be no answer to such an action to show that by Norwegian law the act of the master was justified, or regarded as binding upon shippers and consignees.

If this view be adopted, the strictures in Maclachlan on Shipping upon *Cammell v. Sewell* cannot be supported; and it is noticeable that the Court of Exchequer Chamber, referring to the case in the judgment in *Lloyd v. Guibert*, expressly abstained from expressing any opinion for or against the correctness of the decision. It is suggested by Mr. Maclachlan, that if the Prussian flag was notice to the freighter that the master's authority to bind his employers was limited by Prussian law, it was notice to the Norwegian purchaser of the same limitation. The distinction between an executory contract in which it is necessary that the master should bind those whom he represents and an executed contract of sale, which is in truth completely discharged by the transfer itself, seems to have been overlooked. In the former case the parties must necessarily have contemplated the subsistence of the obligation of the contract, and the performance of its provisions, during a considerable time; and they must therefore be regarded as having intended that some law should regulate the development of the obligation itself, and control the incidents which might arise, but for which

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.
Contract—
Incidents.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

it was difficult if not impossible to provide expressly. This law, it has been determined in *Lloyd v. Guibert*,^(a) is the law of the ship's flag; *i.e.*, the parties must be taken to have assumed that the law of the ship's flag would govern the *future* incidents of the obligation, the master having no authority to undertake that the owners of ship or cargo will do anything, except as defined by that law. But in an absolute and immediate sale, such as that in *Cammell v. Sewell*, the master is not required to pledge his owners to anything. No future relations between the parties are contemplated, and therefore they cannot be taken to have referred to any law to govern the future incidents of the obligation. The master simply contracts to sell the ship or cargo according to the law of the place where they are lying, and he does actually so sell them while they are there. By the comity of nations—or, to speak more correctly, by those principles of international jurisprudence which the law of England, in common with the law of most civilised nations, adopts—a title to property which has once validly accrued according to the law of the situation is good as against all the world;^(b) and the purchaser is not to be put in a worse position because the master of the ship has carelessly or improperly mistaken and exceeded his instructions.^(c)

Discretion of
ship's master
—exercise of.

Nor is the doctrine of *Cammell v. Sewell* in itself new or opposed to the general weight of authority. It has already been said that the decision practically overruled the opinion of Dr. Lushington in *The Eliza Cornish*,^(d) but it is opposed to no other authority of any weight, and is in entire accordance with the views expressed by Lord Stowell in the case of *The Gratitude* ^(e) in 1801. "Suppose the case," said Lord Stowell, in giving judgment, "of a ship driven into port with a perishable cargo, when the master could hold no correspondence with the

(a) L. R. 1 Q. B. 115.

(b) *Ante*, p. 241.

(c) The contention is *Cammell v. Sewell* that the judicial proceedings in Norway, under which the cargo was sold, amounted to a judgment *in rem*, was rejected by all the judges in the Exchequer Chamber, and has not therefore been here referred to. See *Infra*, Chap. XI.

(d) 1 Eccl. & Ad. 36.

(e) 3 Rob. Ad. 240, at p. 259.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

proprietor; suppose the vessel unable to proceed, or to stand in need of repairs to enable her to proceed in time. In such emergencies the authority of agent is necessarily devolved upon him, unless it could be supposed to be the policy of the law that the cargo should be left to perish without care. What is to be done? He *must* in such case exercise his judgment, whether it would be better to tranship the cargo, if he has the means, or to sell it. It is admitted in argument that he is not absolutely bound to tranship; he may not have the means of transshipment; but even if he has, he may act for the best, in deciding to sell; if *he acts unwisely in that decision, still the foreign purchaser will be safe under his acts.*" In *Freeman v. East India Company*,^(a) where the master *did* act unwisely in deciding to sell the cargo, the title of the foreign purchaser was not accepted as good for another reason. The sale took place at the Cape of Good Hope, and it was not shown that the Dutch law then in force there regarded the sale in at all a more favourable light than the English law would have done, or that there was any conflict between them as to its validity.^(b) It appeared, besides, that the purchaser was fully aware of the circumstances under which the master sold, and as he was necessarily taken to have been also cognizant of the law, he purchased with his eyes open, so as even to have precluded himself from finding protection under a sale in market overt,^(c) had the facts amounted to that.

Before passing from the consideration of maritime contracts made with a shipmaster in a foreign port, it may be remarked that, in one point of view, the question is not of the authority given to the master at all, that is, as something distinguished from the intimation afforded by the flag, when the owner is present *in propria persona*. Whether the owner is himself in the foreign port to contract himself, or whether he has sent his shipmaster there to contract for him, the parties to the contract

Ship's master
—the agent
owner.

(a) 5 B. & Ald. 617 (1822).
(c) Coke, 2 Inst. 713.

(b) See per Best, J., p. 624.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

must be equally regarded as contemplating the operation of the law of the flag upon their future relations under the obligation. "The present and like questions," says Willes, J., in *Lloyd v. Guibert*,^(a) "affect not only contracts entered into by masters of ships, the law of whose country distinguishes between the obligations of a contract by the master as such, and that of the owner himself, or his broker, or of the master acting with a plenary authority, but touch all contracts of affreightment entered into in respect of any vessel in a port foreign as to her, whether the master happen to be an owner or not." This principle is obviously a consequence of the natural idea of agency, inasmuch as a man who acts by an agent in a foreign country, acts there himself. In the *Albion Company v. Mills*,^(b) a Scotch appeal to the House of Lords, the Lord Chancellor said: "If I send an agent to reside in Scotland, and he, in my name, enters into a contract in Scotland, the contract is to be considered mine where it is actually made. It is not an English contract, because I actually reside in England. If my agent executes it in Scotland, it is the same as if I were myself on the spot, and executed it in Scotland." So the nature and extent of an agent's authority are to be measured by the law of the place where he is found acting as agent.^(c) If, therefore, a contract by the master of a ship, as agent for his owner, in a foreign port, is governed by the same rules as if the owner had himself been present, it is plain that when the owner himself is so present, and actually makes the contract in his own name, the law of the flag is to be applied to its future incidents, according to the rule laid down in *Lloyd v. Guibert*,^(d) just as much as if he had stayed at home.

Express
provisions for
contingencies
—general
average.

It need hardly be said that, since the law which is to govern future incidents of a contract must in all cases be

(a) L. R. 1 Q. B. 115, 122.

(b) Per Lord Lyndhurst, 3 Wils. & S. 218, 333; 1 Dow & Cl. 342; Story, § 285.

(c) *Maspons y Hermano v. Mildred*, 9 Q. B. D. 530, 539.

(d) L. R. 1 Q. B. 115.

a matter of intention, the parties may provide by express stipulation for certain probable contingencies, and declare beforehand to what law their legal consequences are to be referred. Thus, in contracts of marine insurance, it is common to insert a clause that the underwriters are to be liable for general average "as per foreign statement"; and this has been construed to mean, not only that the calculations of the foreign average-stater are to be accepted as correct, but that what is and what is not general average is to be decided by the law of the foreign port where the adjustment is made.(a) So, where the underwriters agreed "to pay general average as per foreign statement, if so made up"; which was construed as an agreement to be bound by the opinion and decision of the foreign average-stater, both as to facts and law.(b) And in another modern case, where the underwriters agreed "to pay all claims and losses on Dutch terms, and according to statement made up by official *dispacheur* in Holland," the voyage being from Java to Holland, it was held that the words expressing the risks insured against were to be construed by Dutch law, and that the average statement by the Dutch adjuster was binding on the underwriters.(c) It can scarcely be said that the foreign law in any of these cases can be regarded as the place of performance, as the average loss, and consequently the adjustment, was a contingency which might never have arisen.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

The above expressions seem sufficiently clear to show that the parties effecting the policies of insurance, as well as the underwriters, intended their obligation, *quoad* the contingencies referred to, to be regulated by the foreign law; but strong evidence is, no doubt, necessary to show that the parties to an insurance, effected in England with an English company, have in their minds anything but the English law.(d) Thus, where there was an express pro-

Foreign
statement of
average.

(a) *Mavro v. Ocean Marine Insurance Co.*, L. R. 10 C. P. 414.

(b) *Harris v. Scaramanga*, L. R. 7 C. P. 481.

(c) *Hendricks v. Australasian Insurance Co.*, L. R. 9 C. P. 460.

(d) *Power v. Whitmore*, 4 M. & S. 141; *Peninsular and Oriental Co. v. Shand*, 3 Moo. P. C. N. S. 272; *Don v. Lippman*, 5 Cl. & F. 1.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

vision in an English policy on cargo of a French ship, that general average was to be payable as per judicial foreign statement, it was held that the French law could not be invoked for the purpose of deciding what constituted a loss "by perils of the sea." (a) The Court in the case cited said that although it was competent to an underwriter on an English policy to stipulate that it should be construed and applied in whole or in part according to a particular foreign law, yet, except when so stipulated, the English law was to prevail. It is, however, sufficient to show a usage to pay losses according to the foreign statement, that being equivalent, when such that the parties are bound by it, to a special agreement. (b) And it would seem that this usage, for underwriters to settle according to foreign adjustment, is sufficiently established in English law for it to be binding without an express provision to that effect, according to the authority of Phillips on Insurance; (c) but even then, according to the same writer, the foreign law is only entitled to regulate the adjustment, and not to make that an average loss which is not so according to the law of the country where the policy was effected. In *Mavro v. Ocean Marine Insurance Company* (d) Blackburn, J., said it was a question that had never been distinctly settled, whether under an ordinary English policy the English underwriter could be compelled to bear what was held to be a general average loss by the law of the foreign country where the adjustment was made, and that express clauses to pay "as per foreign statement" were frequently inserted in policies to avoid that very difficulty. *Power v. Whitmore*, (e) which is said by Westlake to have decided the question in favour of the underwriter, is explained by Cockburn, C.J., in *Dent v. Smith*, (f) to have been generally misapprehended,

(a) *Greer v. Poole*, 5 Q. B. D. 272.(b) *Newman v. Cazalet*, Park, Ins. 900, 8th ed.

(c) §§ 1413, 1414.

(d) L. R. 10 C. P. 414, 418. *Walpole v. Ewer*, Park, Ins. 898, 8th ed., is often cited as an authority for the affirmative, but may probably be regarded as overruled by *Power v. Whitmore*, and the other cases cited above.

(e) 4 M. & S. 141; Westlake, § 209.

(f) L. R. 4 Q. B. 414, 450.

there being no proof in that case that the loss in question was a general average loss even by the law of Portugal, where the adjustment was made. In *Dent v. Smith* the underwriters were held liable to repay moneys to the shippers of gold on board an English ship for Constantinople, which they had been compelled to pay in order to get the gold out of the hands of the Russian authorities at Gallipoli, where the ship had become stranded. After the insurance was effected, and before she sailed, the ship had been transferred to Russian owners, and had duly changed her nationality, a fact of which neither the plaintiffs nor defendants were aware; and this change alone had given the Russian authorities at Gallipoli jurisdiction. It was held that the underwriters were liable, on the ground that the plaintiffs had been compelled to pay the sum claimed as salvage, and were entitled to recover it as a loss by perils of the sea; so that, although the case was argued in some respects as one of general average, no light was thrown upon that question.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.
*Contract—
Incidents.*

The diversities in the law of general average adopted by different nations are so great,^(a) and the advantages promised by uniformity so apparent, that the subject has more than once engaged the attention of reformers. International Congresses for this purpose have repeatedly been held, at several of which a code of rules has been prepared and recommended for adoption (Glasgow, 1860; London, 1862; York, 1864). A Bill was prepared in 1860-62, which was intended to incorporate the code of rules adopted at Glasgow, but proved ill-adapted for its purpose, and was abandoned. The rules which were drawn up at York were pressed upon the attention of the English Government by the Associated Chambers of Commerce, and repeated attempts made to obtain adoption of them from the Legislature;^(b) but these attempts were unsuccessful; and in 1877 a revised form of these rules

General
average—
conflict of
law.

General
average—
York and
Antwerp
Rules.

(a) See the comparative table in Lowndes on Average, p. xxviii.

(b) Report of the Annual Conference (1877), at Antwerp, of the Association for the Reform and Codification of the Law of Nations.

PART III. was adopted by the Association for the Reform and Codification of the Law of Nations, at its fifth annual conference
ACTN. at Antwerp, under the name of "The York and Antwerp
CAP. VIII. Rules."

Contract— It may be useful to give these *in extenso*.
Incidents.

The York and Antwerp Rules.

1. *Jettison of Deck Cargo*.—No jettison of deck cargo shall be made good as general average.

Every structure not built in with the frame of the vessel shall be considered to be a part of the deck of the vessel.

2. *Damage by Jettison*.—Damage done to goods or merchandise by water which unavoidably goes down a ship's hatches opened, or other opening made, for the purpose of making a jettison, shall be made good as general average, in case the loss by jettison is so made good.

Damage done by breaking and chafing, or otherwise from derangement of stowage, consequent upon a jettison, shall be made good as general average, in case the loss by jettison is so made good.

3. *Extinguishing Fire on Shipboard*.—Damage done to a ship or cargo, or either of them, by water or otherwise, in extinguishing a fire on board the ship, shall be general average; except that no compensation be made for damage done by water to packages which have been on fire.

4. *Cutting away Wreck*.—Loss or damage caused by cutting away the wreck or remains of spars, or of other things which have previously been carried away by sea-peril, shall not be made good as general average.

5. *Voluntary Stranding*.—When a ship is intentionally run on shore because she is sinking or driving on shore or rocks, no damage caused to the ship, the cargo and freight, or any or either of them, by such intentional running on shore shall be made good as general average.

6. *Carrying Press of Sail*.—Damage occasioned to a

ship or cargo by carrying a press of sail shall not be made good as general average.

7. *Port of Refuge Expenses.*—When a ship shall have entered a port of refuge under such circumstances that the expenses of entering the port are admissible as general average, and when she shall have sailed thence with her original cargo or a part of it, the corresponding expenses of leaving such port shall likewise be admitted as general average; and whenever the cost of discharging cargo at such port is admissible as general average, the cost of reloading and stowing such cargo on board the said ship, together with all storage charges on such cargo, shall likewise be so admitted.(a)

8. *Wages and Maintenance of Crew in Port of Refuge.*—When a ship shall have entered a port of refuge under the circumstances defined in Rule 7, the wages and cost of maintenance of the master and mariners, from the time of entering such port until the ship shall have been made ready to proceed upon her voyage, shall be made good as general average.

9. *Damage to Cargo in Discharging.*—Damage done to cargo by discharging it at a port of refuge shall not be admissible as general average, in case such cargo shall have been discharged at the place and in the manner customary at that port with ships not in distress.

10. *Contributory Values.*—The contribution to a general average shall be made upon the actual values of the property at the termination of the adventure, to which shall be added the amount made good as general average for property sacrificed; deduction being made from the shipowner's freight and passage-money at risk of such port charges and crew's wages as would not have been incurred, had the ship and cargo been totally lost at the date of the general average act or sacrifice; deduction

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

(a) It has recently been decided by the House of Lords (affirming the decision of the Court of Appeal) that this rule is not in accordance with English law, and that the contrary practice of English average staters is correct: *Svensen v. Wallace*, 10 App. Cas. 404, overruling the decision of the Queen's Bench Division in *Attwood v. Sellar*, 4 Q. B. D. 354.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Incidents.*

being also made from the value of the property of all charges incurred in respect thereof subsequently to the arising of the claim to general average.

11. *Loss of Freight.*—In every case in which a sacrifice of cargo is made good as general average, the loss of freight, if any, which is caused by such loss of cargo shall likewise be so made good.

12. *Amount to be made good for Cargo.*—The value to be allowed for goods sacrificed shall be that value which the owner would have received if such goods had not been sacrificed.

The York and Antwerp Rules, however, have not received the approval of British underwriters. A joint committee was appointed to consider them, composed of twenty-two members, four representing the committee of Lloyd's, eight the London companies, three the Liverpool underwriters, two the Glasgow underwriters, and one the Australian and New Zealand Underwriters' Association, under a resolution passed at Lloyd's on the 26th of June 1878. In their report this joint committee say that the proposed extension of general average involves a transfer of liabilities belonging to the shipowners to the owners of cargo, and that they do not see on what grounds, either of justice or expediency, such a transfer is in itself desirable. They deprecate on principle the extension of the system of contribution to general average. They acknowledge the immense importance of uniformity, if uniformity could be secured; but they consider that it is premature to hope even for such uniformity till more is known of the results of the action of the local committees of the association which met at Antwerp; and the report concludes with a request to the committee of Lloyd's to adhere at present to their determination not to give their sanction as a corporation to the York and Antwerp Rules as at present framed and put forward.(a)

The York and Antwerp Rules, though not accepted by

(a) *Vide Law Times*, July 13, 1878, p. 202.

Lloyd's, have in practice met with considerable recognition. In several of the European States (more particularly in Russia, Austria, Sweden, Norway, and Belgium) the bodies representing shipowners and insurance companies have accepted them with something approaching unanimity. In the United States the leading insurance companies and many of the shipowners agreed to the rules when they appeared, while the Chambers of Commerce of New York and San Francisco voted against them by small majorities.^(a) In practice it is frequently found that a clause is inserted in charter-parties and bills of lading stipulating for the adjustment of average according to the York and Antwerp Rules.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.*

With regard to contracts for carriage or transit by land and sea, it is obvious that it may be often left very doubtful what law was intended by the parties to govern the incidents of the carriage and the contingent liabilities of the carriers. The question arose in *Cohen v. South-Eastern Railway Company* ^(b) in respect of a contract entered into with an English railway company, at their office at Boulogne, for carriage of a passenger and his luggage from Boulogne, *via* Folkestone, to London. The luggage fell into the sea by the negligence of the defendants' servants, and was so lost; and the question arose whether the liability of the defendants, who had endeavoured to limit it by a notice on the back of the passenger's ticket, was governed by English or French law. It was ultimately held that they were liable by English law, and, as the defendants did not deny that they were so by the law of France, it was unnecessary to decide the question of conflict. Mellish, L.J., however, in the Court of Appeal said: "I confess for my own part that, the contract being made by an English passenger with an English railway company regulated by English law, I should have sup-

Contracts for
carriage by
land and sea.

Cohen v.
South-Eastern
Ry. Co.

(a) Report of the London Conference of the Association for the Reform and Codification of the Law of Nations, 1879. The subject is to come before the Association at the Liverpool Conference in the present year (1890). Further information as to the York and Antwerp Rules will be found in Dr. Wendt's treatise on Maritime Legislation, 3rd ed. pp. 255, *seq.*

b) L. R. 1 Ex. D. 217; S. C. on appeal, L. R. 2 Ex. D. 253.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Incidents.*

posed that it ought to be governed by the law of England, and be taken as made with regard to the law of England. And the more so for this reason, that Parliament having passed Acts to regulate the traffic by both railways and steamboats, when the steamboats belong to the railway company, and there being certain clauses in these Acts for the protection of passengers, I should not be willing to think that the railway company could escape from the stringency of those Acts by having a booking office in a foreign country; the object being to carry a variety of traffic which was intended to be regulated by Parliament by sea and by land.”(a) It is plain that the real force of this argument lies in the consideration that the passenger would be the more likely to have contracted with an eye to the English law, because he knew that the company was an English company, subject generally to English law, and that the English Legislature had passed certain Acts which purported to regulate the object for which he was contracting. The judges of the Court of Appeal, however, were by no means agreed upon this inference of intention. Baggallay, L.J., whilst guarding himself against being supposed to be expressing any decided opinion, intimated that it appeared to him that there was much to be said in favour of the law of France; (b) whilst Brett, L.J., the third member of the Court, whilst apparently agreeing with Mellish, L.J., that the English law was applicable to the facts of the particular case, where the journey only commenced at Boulogne, thought it probable that if the starting-place had been Paris instead, the first part of the journey at any rate would have been governed by the law of France.(c) It has been already pointed out that, in such a case, the law of the place where the contract was made could have no right, as such, to assert its supremacy. The real question would be, looking at all the circumstances of the case, the thing to be done, the situation of the starting-

(a) L. R. 2 Ex. D. 259, 260.

(c) *Ibid.* p. 262.(b) *Ibid.* p. 261.

point, the destination, the intermediate distance, the nationality and domicile of the parties contracting, and the terms of the contract, by what law did the parties intend that the unforeseen incidents of their contract should be governed? It may be remarked that in the particular case under discussion, the passenger had accepted a ticket, the conditions on the back of which referred to the company's bye-laws; and inasmuch as these bye-laws derived their force and authority from the English Legislature, this would seem a strong argument to show that the parties ought to have intended that the law of England should govern the whole transaction.^(a) There is, however, another principle applicable to the case which has not yet been considered. It will be shown presently that the manner and extent of the performance of a contract are referred almost universally to the law of the place where the contract is to be performed. The contract of a carrier is performed in the place where he carries, not in the place whence he starts, or to which he is destined. It may reasonably be contended that he contracts to carry in the manner authorised by, and with the liabilities for negligent carriage imposed by, the law of the country through which the transit is made; and that in such a journey as that supposed, from Paris to London, the French law would apply during the first portion, by railway from Paris to Boulogne; and the English law during the remainder, when the passenger and his luggage were on English soil, or on board an English ship. "Whether that part of the contract which has to be performed in France," said Brett, L.J., in *Cohen v. South-Eastern Railway Company*,^(b) "must in strictness be said to be performed according to French law, I know not." It would certainly not be inconsistent with principle, and it is doubtful if it would even be inconvenient in practice, to consider that the parties intended the liability of the carrier to vary according to the law of the country through

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

Carrier's
liability.

^(a) See *Peninsular and Oriental Co. v. Shand*, 3 Moo. P. C. N. S. 272, 291.

^(b) L. R. 2 Ex. D. 253, 263.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

Carrier's
contract—by
what law
governed.

which the transit was made, having regard to the fact that the ordinary and established means of conveyance in both countries were made use of. The inference of intention would of course be quite different if the contract was one to carry by private and special means through several jurisdictions, and it cannot be too frequently repeated that the question of the law applicable is one of intention alone. And this is the ground upon which the decision of the Privy Council in *Peninsular and Oriental Company v. Shand (a)* must be taken to have proceeded, where it was held that the carrier's liability, the agreed carriage being from Southampton to Mauritius, *via* Alexandria and Suez, was governed by English law and not by the law of France, which was in force at the place of destination. The carriers in that case were an English company, the passenger being also English by nationality and (apparently) domicil, and almost the whole of the transit was to be performed in one of their ships, with the exception of the railway journey across the Isthmus of Suez. The effect of the Egyptian law, however, was not alluded to, and nothing in fact turned upon that part of the journey. The Court, in giving judgment, after alluding to the difficulty of saying by what law the nature and obligation of a contract was to be governed, and the conflict of decisions on the question, stated the *prima facie* rule, that the law of the country where a contract was made must generally be taken to govern as to its nature, obligation, and interpretation, and that the parties must be understood as having agreed to submit themselves to it, and proceeded to show how the intention was directly to be inferred from the facts before them, as follows: "This is a contract made between British subjects in England, substantially for safe carriage from Southampton to Mauritius. The performance is to commence in an English vessel in an English port; to be continued in vessels which for this purpose carry their country with them; to be fully completed in Mauritius;

(a) 3 Moo. P. C. N. S. 272.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Incidents.*

but liable to breach, partial or entire, in several other countries in which the vessels might be in the course of the voyage. Into this contract, which the appellants frame and issue, they have introduced for their own protection a stipulation, professing in its terms to limit the liability which, according to the English law, the contract would otherwise have cast upon them. When they tendered this contract to the respondent, and required his signature to it, what must it be presumed that he understood to be their intention as to this stipulation? What would any reasonable man have understood that they intended? Was it to secure to themselves some real protection against responsibility for accidental losses of luggage and for damage to it; or to stipulate for something to which, however clearly expressed, the law would allow no validity? This question leaves untouched, it will be observed, the extent of the contemplated protection; it asks, in effect, was it intended that the stipulation in case of an alleged breach of contract should be construed by the rules of the English law, which would give some effect to it, or by those of the French or any other law, according to which it would have none, but be treated as a merely fruitless attempt to evade a responsibility inseparably fixed upon the appellants as carriers? If their lordships take the respondent to have understood the intention of the appellants in the first way, they must take him to have adopted the same intention; it would be to impute want of good faith on his part to suppose that with that knowledge he yet intended to enter into a contract wholly different on so important an article; he could not have done this if the intention had been expressed, and there is no difference as to effect between that which is expressed in terms and that which is implied and clearly understood. The actual intention of the parties, therefore, must be taken clearly to have been to treat this as an English contract, to be interpreted according to the rules of English law.”(a)

(a) 3 Moo. P. C. N. S. 291, 292.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Incidents.*Bills of
exchange.Liability of
parties to bill
of exchange.

In matters relating to bills of exchange, much difficulty appears to have been felt by the Courts in deciding by what law the nature and incidents of the drawer's, acceptor's, and indorser's contract respectively are to be defined—a difficulty which may be partly due to the want of any clear distinction between the abstract nature of the obligation, which has reference to no particular place (apart from the intention which it is necessary that the law should presume), and those incidents which arise from acts and facts to be, if at all, in some particular locality. Westlake, though confessedly here not altogether in accordance with the English authorities, is in favour of referring all questions touching the obligation and liability of the drawer or indorser of a bill of exchange to the law of the place where his contract is made; (a) and cites *Allen v. Kemble* (b) to show that the contracts of the drawer and indorser, as well as that of the acceptor, ought to be determined by the law of the country where the obligation first attached. It must be remarked of the decision in *Allen v. Kemble*, first, that the *dicta* of Lord Kingsdown in the judgment were in reality unnecessary to the case before the Court; (c) and secondly, that the conclusion drawn from them by Westlake (§ 228) is hardly warranted by their actual terms. In *Allen v. Kemble* the assignees of the bankrupt holder of a bill of exchange, drawn and indorsed in Demerara, accepted in Scotland, payable in London, sued the drawer and indorser in Demerara instead of the acceptor, in order to avoid a set-off which the acceptor had against the bankrupt holder. By the Roman-Dutch law then in force in Demerara, a surety is entitled to the benefit of any cross-claim which the principal may have against the creditor, and the Privy Council held that this law was equally applicable, although the liability of the *principal* arose in a foreign country.

(a) §§ 226, 227. See now, as to formalities, interpretation, and incidents of the acceptance or indorsement of a bill, the provisions of 45 & 46 Vict. c. 61, s. 72 (Bills of Exchange Act, 1882). (b) 6 Moo. P. C. 314.

(c) See per Cockburn, C.J., *Rouquette v. Overman*, L. R. 10 Q. B. 525, at p. 540.

Nothing turned on the law relating to bills of exchange, and the question would have been precisely the same if the action against the parties in Demerara had been brought on a guarantee given by them in respect of goods supplied to a party in England. (a) The case is simply an illustration of the principle which has already been fully discussed, that the law of the place where a contract is made is *prima facie* that intended to define the contractor's obligation; and that a person entering into a contract of suretyship in Demerara expects and is expected to have all the advantages, if sued upon default of the principal or in his place, that the law of Demerara gives him.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

It is in reality by a mere application of this rule, that the liability of a drawer and of an acceptor of a bill of exchange to pay interest, when sued for the amount, has been held to be dependent upon the law of the place where they first assumed liability at all—*i.e.*, where their respective contracts were made. As to the acceptor, this was held as long ago as 1840 by Lord Langdale in *Cooper v. Waldegrave*; (b) and the same principle has since been applied to the contract of the drawer. (c) Not merely the liability of the acceptor to pay interest, but his liability to pay at all on his showing that he had not sufficient effects of the drawer in his hands at the time of the acceptance, was referred in a much older case to the law of the country where the acceptance was given; (d) and it has been laid down in a modern case, that all questions of the acceptor's liability which have no relation to the manner of performing the contract, or to the consequences of non-performance, depend upon the same law. (e) So far the presumption, that no law is in the mind of the parties but the law of the place of contract, is not interfered with. The case assumes a very different form when the incidents of payment, dishonour, protest, and notice, which must neces-

(a) Per Cockburn, C.J., in *Bouquette v. Overman*, L. R. 10 Q. B. at p. 541.

(b) 2 Beav. 282. (c) *Gibbs v. Fremont*, 9 Ex. 25; 22 L. J. Ex. 302.

(d) *Burrows v. Jemino*, 2 Str. 733; *Wynne v. Callendar*, 1 Russ. 295. See also *Potter v. Brown*, 5 East, 124.

(e) *Scott v. Pilkington*, 2 B. & S. 11, 44.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Incidents.*Contract of
drawer and
indorser.

sarily arise at some particular place and in accordance with some particular law, occur to complicate the question.

The drawer or indorser of a bill, who by the drawing or indorsement becomes the surety for the due performance of the surety's contract, knows, first, that the payment of the bill must be at the place where it is made payable. Secondly, he knows that the time of the payment, whether lengthened or not by days of grace, is to be determined by the law of the place where it is made payable; and when it is accepted generally, by the law of the place of the acceptance.^(a) Now if the bill is not paid according to the law of the place of payment, when presented according to that law, he, the surety, will become liable to be called upon to pay in place of the principal. Before, however, he can be so called upon, certain preliminaries, in addition to presentment and non-payment, must be fulfilled. It is at least reasonable to presume that these incidents of *non-payment* will be governed by the same law that applies to all the incidents of *payment*. It is the acceptor's contract that he guarantees, and he may fairly expect that the performance and the non-performance of that contract will be defined by the same law—the law of the place where it ought to be performed.

Liabilities of
drawer and
acceptor of
bill.

In accordance with this principle, and to this extent, it has been held that the obligations of the drawer and indorser, as surety, are to be measured by the same law as the obligations of the acceptor.^(b) In *Rothschild v. Currie* the bill was drawn in England, accepted in Paris, payable there, and indorsed in England to the plaintiff. Upon the dishonour of the bill by non-payment on presentation, notice was given to the plaintiff in England, and transmitted by him to the defendant, who had indorsed the bill to him. Some delay, however, had occurred about the protest, and the notice to the defendant of dishonour,

(a) Bills of Exchange Act, 1882 (45 & 46 Vict. c. 61), s. 72 (3), (4), (5); Byles on Bills, 11th ed. pp. 398, 399; *Rouquette v. Overman*, L. R. 10 Q. B. 535, 536, 538, 542.

(b) *Rouquette v. Overman*, L. R. 10 Q. B. 525; "which may be regarded as overruling *Mellish v. Simeon*, 2 H. Bl. 378": *arguendo* in *Horne v. Rouquette*, L. R. 3 Q. B. D. 514.

though in time by the French law, was too late by the law of England. An action having been brought against the defendant as indorser and surety, it was held that the plaintiff was entitled to recover, inasmuch as the notice of dishonour was sufficient by French law, being the law of the place where the payment was to have been made.(a) Both Westlake (b) and Story (c) dissent from this decision, and the ground upon which it was given, considering that the contract of a drawer or indorser is to be governed by the law of the place where he affixes his name, that being the law which imposes the obligation upon him once for all. The principle of *Rothschild v. Currie* (d) is certainly defensible upon the ground which it has been above attempted to indicate, and has since been followed so often as to stand virtually beyond the reach of criticism. *Hirschfield v. Smith* (e) was a case arising out of similar circumstances, the question being, as in *Rothschild v. Currie*, whether a notice of dishonour was sufficient if given in conformity with the law of the country where the bill was payable only, and it was decided in the same way; not only upon the authority of the previous case, the probable accuracy of which had up to that time been considered questionable, but upon the further ground, that even assuming the indorser's contract to be governed by the law of England, as the place of indorsement, yet the law of England ought to accept as reasonable notice of dishonour such notice as was required by the law of France, where the bill was payable. This is in effect merely what has been said before, that, according to English views of private international law, the intention of the indorser must be assumed to have been to bind himself to accept, as reasonable notice of dishonour, notice according to the law of the country where the bill was payable. "The indorser of a bill accepted payable in France," said Erle, C.J., in his judgment, "promises to pay in the event

Notice of
dishonour—
sufficiency of.

(a) *Rothschild v. Currie*, 1 Q. B. 43.

(c) Story on Bills, § 296, n.

(e) L. R. 1 C. P. 340.

(b) Westlake, § 227.

(d) 1 Q. B. 43.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

of dishonour in France, and notice thereof. By his contract he must be taken to know the law of France relating to the dishonour of bills, and notice of dishonour is a portion of that law." In *Horne v. Rouquette* (a) the bill was dishonoured for non-acceptance, and the action was by indorsee against indorser. In conformity with *Rothschild v. Currie*, it was held that the necessity for notice of dishonour depended upon the law of Spain, where the bill was made payable, and should have been accepted. *Rouquette v. Overman* (b) was a case in which the real question was again that which had been decided in *Rothschild v. Currie*, (c) but the circumstances under which the law of the place of payment had postponed the presentation for payment and notice of dishonour were exceptional. The bill was drawn and indorsed in England, and accepted payable in France, the day for payment, according to its tenor, being the 5th of October 1870. Pending the currency of the bill, the German army having invaded France, the Emperor Napoleon issued an edict extending the right of action on all negotiable instruments then current for a month, and deferring payment for that time. After the change of government, similar laws were passed from time to time, and published by the executive for the time being, further extending the period of delay in the case of all current negotiable instruments, the effect of which was ultimately to extend the day of payment of this particular bill to the 5th of September 1871. On that day it was duly presented, dishonoured, and protested; and notice of dishonour and protest according to the law of France was sent to the English indorsee (the plaintiff), and through him to the defendants, the drawers and indorsers. The plaintiff having paid the amount due on the bill to those to whom he had indorsed it over, sued the defendants, his indorsers, for indemnity; and it was contended that they were discharged, inasmuch as the bill had not been presented for payment at the proper time, according to its tenor, nor had notice of dishonour been then given. It was held, in strict accordance, as is sub-

(a) 3 Q. B. D. 514.

(b) L. R. 10 Q. B. 525.

(c) 1 Q. B. 43.

mitted, with *Allen v. Kemble* (a) and *Gibbs v. Fremont* (b) no less than with *Rothschild v. Currie*, that the proper time for payment, and the proper time for notice of dishonour, was the time fixed by the law of the country where payment was to have been made; and that inasmuch as the presentation, protest, and notice of dishonour had all been in strict conformity with the law of France, though eleven months after the date named in the bill, the plaintiff and his indorsees had done all that was required of them, and the defendants were liable upon their contract as indorsers.

It is now enacted, by 45 & 46 Vict. c. 61, s. 72, that "the duties of the holder with respect to presentment for acceptance or payment, and the necessity for or sufficiency of a protest or notice of dishonour, or otherwise, are determined by the law of the place where the act is done or the bill is dishonoured."

The nature and obligation of the contract of the drawer and indorser, and the amount of their liability, being thus determined *prima facie* by the law of the place where they contracted, where there is nothing to show that a different law was intended, and by the law of the place where the bill is accepted and payable, in all matters which relate to performance or non-performance there by the acceptor, it is plain that the acceptor's contract must be measured by similar principles. No case appears to have been discussed in which the acceptor has accepted in one country a bill payable in another; but, in analogy with the cases just cited, it would seem that a distinction ought under such circumstances to be drawn between his abstract liability to pay at all under his contract on the one hand, and the incidents, mode, and conditions of payment on the other. The question, whether he ever became bound, would be decided by the law of the place where he entered into the assumed obligation; the question what he became bound to do, by the law of the place in which he became bound to do it. The obligation, however, of the acceptor of a bill of exchange is not in every sense absolute. It is virtually a contract to pay to the payee or his order, if he

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

Acceptor of
bill—liability
of

(a) 6 Moo. P. C. 314.

(b) 9 Ex. 25.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

makes one, that is, to pay to an indorsee, if an indorsement is regularly made. The question then arises, what is a regular and sufficient indorsement? In other words, when the acceptor (in his implied contract) used the expression indorsement, what description of indorsement was meant?

The modern cases on this question may be conveniently summarised, before entering on their discussion, in the following form:—

The acceptor in England of a bill drawn and payable in England contracts to pay on any indorsement valid by English law.(a)

So does the acceptor in England of a bill drawn in France payable in England, when there is evidence on the face of the bill that it was intended, so far as regarded the acceptor, to be an English bill for all purposes.(b)

But it has been held otherwise, and that the law of the place of indorsement (France) must be satisfied, when the bill was drawn in France, and there was no such indication of intention.(c)

The Bills of Exchange Act, 1882 (45 & 46 Vict. c. 61), s. 72, has now enacted that the validity as regards form of the contracts of acceptance and indorsement is determined by the law of the place where the contract is made. But where a bill issued abroad conforms in form to English law, it may be treated as valid between all persons who negotiate, hold, or become parties to it in the United Kingdom.

In *Trimbey v. Vignier* (d) a promissory note was drawn and indorsed in blank in France, and the action was brought by the indorsee against the maker, who stands, of course, in the same position as the acceptor of a bill of exchange. By the French law, as the Court understood it on the evidence submitted to them, an indorsement in blank was not sufficient to entitle the plaintiff to sue in his own name, and it was held accordingly that he could not do so here. In other words, the contract of the

Indorsement
of bill—by
what law to
be tested.

(a) *Lebel v. Tucker*, L. R. 3 Q. B. 77.

(b) *Smallpage's Case*, 30 Ch. D. 598.

(c) *Bradlaugh v. De Rin*, L. R. 3 C. P. 538; 5 C. P. 473 (*sed qu.*).

(d) 1 Bing. N. C. 151.

maker of the note was to pay to the payee; or if an indorsement was made according to the law of France, then, and then only, to the indorsee. The question of the right of an indorsee, under an indorsement *not* made according to the law of France, to sue in his own name, was therefore not one of procedure or remedy at all, but touched the very essence of the maker's contract; and was governed by the law of France, where that contract, expressing no intention to adopt the provisions of any other law, was made. It will be observed that in this case the bill was drawn as well as accepted in France; so that the question whether the acceptor's liability to pay on indorsement will be determined by the law of the place of acceptance as such, is left undecided by it. The case of *Lebel v. Tucker* (a) was the exact converse. There the bill was drawn, accepted, and payable in England, the blank indorsement only being made in France, and being ineffectual by French law to transfer the right of action, according to the same view of that law as that taken in *Trimbey v. Vignier*.(b) It was held, in strict accordance with the principle of the former case, that the contract of the acceptor was to pay to an order valid by the law of England (the place where the bill was drawn and accepted); and that the imperfection of the indorsement according to the law of France, where it was made, was no answer to an action by the indorsee against the acceptor. The *ratio decidendi* of the judgment is given by Lush, J., as follows: "The defence is, that the indorsement was made in France, and is not conformable to the law of France, which requires that the indorsement should bear a date, and express the consideration for the indorsement and the name of the indorsee. The question is, is that any answer to an action against the acceptor of an English bill? The contract on which the present defendant, the acceptor, is sued was made in England. . . . His contract, if expanded in words, is, 'I under-

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

Indorsement
—sufficiency
of.

(a) L. R. 3 Q. B. 77.

(b) 1 Bing. N. C. 151. But, according to Cockburn, C.J., in *Bradlaugh v. De Rin*, L. R. 5 C. P. 473, 475, the French law was misunderstood by the Court in that case.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

take, at the maturity of the bill, to pay to the person who shall be the holder under an indorsement from you, the payee, made according to the law merchant.' How can that contract of the acceptor be varied by the circumstance that the indorsement is made in a country where the law is different from the law of England? The bill retains its original character; it remains an inland bill up to the time of its maturity, and is negotiable according to English law; and by the English law a simple indorsement in blank transfers the right to sue to the holder. . . . The judgment in *Trimbey v. Vignier* proceeded on the ground that the contract, that is, the contract of the maker of the note, having been made in France, must be governed by the law of France. So here, the contract of the acceptor, having been made in England, must be governed by the English law. It would be anomalous to say that a contract made in this country could be affected by the circulation and negotiation in a foreign country of the instrument by which the contract is constituted. The original contract cannot be varied by the law of any foreign country through which the instrument passes." (a)

Indorsement
invalid by
lex loci.

The above reasoning would in itself appear conclusively to show that the law of the place of acceptance, in that right alone, must determine the validity of any indorsement of a bill; but the subsequent case of *Bradlaugh v. De Rin* (b) had the effect of leaving the question in a most unsatisfactory condition. In the two cases which have just been considered, the place of drawing and acceptance was the same, being in the first France, and in the second England. In *Bradlaugh v. De Rin* the bill was drawn in France and accepted in England. The holder sued upon an indorsement made in blank in France, alleged to be imperfect according to the same view of French law which the preceding cases involved; and the question was thus directly raised, whether the law of the place of acceptance alone was entitled to decide the validity of the transfer. The Court was divided, Bovill, C.J., and

(a) L. R. 3 Q. B. 77, at p. 84.

(b) L. R. 3 C. P. 538; S. C. on appeal, L. R. 5 C. P. 473.

Willes, J., holding that it was not; and that inasmuch as the bill was drawn and indorsed in France, and the indorsement was insufficient by the French law (according to their view of it) to transfer the drawer's right of action *as between the drawer* (who was the indorser) *and the indorsee*, it was also insufficient to give the indorsee any right of action against the English acceptor. It was not noticed by the majority of the Court that this reasoning, if valid at all, was applicable with almost equal force to the circumstances of *Lebel v. Tucker*.(a) Montague Smith, J., on the other hand, held that, as against the English acceptor, the French indorsement, though imperfect by French law, was sufficient; adopting in full the principle laid down in *Lebel v. Tucker*, that the contract of an English acceptor in England was to pay to any order or indorsement of the payee which was valid by the mercantile law of England. The Court being thus divided, the case was carried to appeal, where it went off upon a different ground, leaving the question now under consideration untouched. It had been assumed in all the preceding cases (b) that the French law did in fact absolutely disentitle the holder of a bill of exchange, under a blank indorsement made in France, from suing in his own name, and arts. 137 and 138 of the Code du Commerce had been relied on. The Court of Exchequer Chamber, however, were unanimously of opinion that this construction of the French law was wrong, and that it had not been shown, therefore, that the blank indorsement sued on in *Bradlaugh v. De Rin* was insufficient to pass the right of action even by the law of the place where it was made. It was conceded that such an indorsement effected a procuration, and Cockburn, C.J., after examining the French authorities,(c) pointed out that such a procuration entitled the indorsee to sue in his own name, sub-

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

(a) L. R. 3 Q. B. 77.

(b) *Trimby v. Vignier*, 1 Bing. N. C. 151; *Lebel v. Tucker*, L. R. 3 Q. B. 77; *Bradlaugh v. De Rin*, L. R. 3 C. P. 538.

(c) Code du Commerce, arts. 137, 138; Paillet, Manuel de Droit Français, ii. 1140, nn. 3-6; Bédarride, Lettre de Change, i. p. 430, §§ 321-22.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Incidents.*

ject only to the contingency that any defence might be used against him which could have been maintained against the indorser. The decision of the majority of the Court below was consequently reversed, but no confirmation was thereby given to the opinion of Montague Smith, J., on the question of the conflict of law; and the judgments given, indeed, seem studiously to have avoided any intimation of the views taken by the judges upon it. All that was decided was that the indorsement was sufficient to give the indorsee a right of action even by French law, and that it was therefore unnecessary to say whether he would have been allowed to sue here if that had not been the case.

It cannot be said that the judgment of Pearson, J., in *Smallpage's Case* (a) left this vexed question definitely decided. The bill of exchange which was the subject of litigation was indorsed in France, being drawn in France in English form, accepted in and payable in England. The indorsement was insufficient by French law, but it was held that the indorsee was entitled on the ground that the bill "was intended to be an English bill of exchange for all purposes, at all events as regards the acceptors." The judgment rested on the facts, showing that the bill spoke of English current money, and was in English form (though translated into French). It can scarcely, therefore, be regarded as an express authority for the bare proposition that the form of the indorsement depends upon the law of the place of acceptance or payment. It did in that particular case, because the judge thought the facts showed that the acceptor so intended. Whether in every case an acceptor ought not to be presumed so to intend is still in a sense an open question, *Lebel v. Trucker*, (b) in addition to *Smallpage's Case*, being a strong authority on the one hand; and the decision of the majority of the Court of Common Pleas in *Bradlaugh v. De Rin*, (c) Montague Smith, J. (*dissentiente*), on the other. The judg-

(a) 30 Ch. D. 598.

(b) L. R. 3 Q. B. 77.

(c) L. R. 3 C. P. 538. The question is of course concluded for English lawyers by s. 72 of the Bills of Exchange Act, 1882 (45 & 46 Vict. c. 61).

ment of Willes, J., in the latter case proceeded on the ground, as has been said, that an indorsement imperfect by the law of the place where it is made is inoperative as between the indorser and indorsee, and therefore cannot transfer to the latter the right of the indorser to sue the acceptor. This argument was, however, expressly noticed and dismissed as immaterial in *Lebel v. Tucker*,^(a) when the real question was, it is submitted, correctly pointed out. What did the acceptor contract to do? to pay on an indorsement good according to the law of England, or only on an indorsement good by that law and also by the law of the particular country where the bill happened to be when the indorsement was made? It seems reasonable to suppose, in accordance with the reasoning of Lush, J., cited above,^(b) that no other law but that of England could have been in his contemplation. He had no reason, apparently, to assume that the bill would be indorsed in France; and it might just as well have been carried before indorsement to Vienna or St. Petersburg, in which case the Austrian or Russian law would have similarly claimed to regulate the validity of the transfer. With the rights of the indorser and indorsee *inter se* the acceptor has nothing to do; and it is clear that no drawer, who has indorsed and parted with his acceptance for valuable consideration and in conformity with the English law, would be entitled to sue him upon it. The other argument used, that the bill in *Bradlaugh v. De Rin* was French in its inception, and regarded as foreign by the English law for the purpose of protest, is in reality opposed to the principle it was cited to establish. A bill drawn abroad is regarded as foreign for the purpose of protest only to this extent, that without formal protest as a foreign bill, no action can be maintained against the drawer. That is, the drawer's liability is measured by the law of the place where he enters into his contract; and upon the same principle, so should be the liability of the acceptor.^(c)

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

(a) L. R. 3 Q. B. at p. 83.

(b) *Ante*, p. 437.

(c) See now the provisions of the Bills of Exchange Act, 1882 (45 & 46 Vict. c. 61), s. 72, summarised *ante*, p. 436.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.Assignability
of promissory
notes.

Closely analogous to the question of the indorsement abroad of bills of exchange, is that of the transfer by indorsement or assignment of promissory notes. Promissory notes made payable to bearer pass from hand to hand in England under a statutory provision (3 & 4 Anne, c. 9), and the contract of the maker, according to English law, is thus to pay to the bearer; *i.e.*, the assignee by mere delivery of the original payee. On the principle of *Lebel v. Tucker* (a) it would therefore seem that the law of the place where the delivery is made is immaterial, and that the bearer has an equal right to sue in England though the transfer to him was by that law ineffectual. And accordingly in *De la Chaumette v. The Bank of England* (b) it was held that a promissory note made in England payable to bearer was transferable by mere delivery in France. It was not, however, shown or found in that case that the law of France required more than delivery, though it was apparently assumed that it did so. And it may be also remarked that in *Byles on Bills*, this case is cited for the limited proposition that notes or bills payable to bearer, made *and payable* in England, are transferable by delivery abroad, although by the law of the country where the transfer takes place mere delivery is inoperative to pass the right of action. (c) It is difficult, however, to see how the place of payment is material. A note made in England derives all its assignability from the English law, and it is not apparent why that assignability should be limited because the maker stipulates that he shall only be called upon to pay in a different country. The manner and mode of payment are no doubt measured by that law, (d) as all other questions connected with the performance of the maker's contract; but his original liability to pay the bearer, to whom the property has passed by proper transfer, has no more to do with performance than his liability to the payee; and the law

(a) L. R. 3 Q. B. 77. But see *contra*, *Bradlaugh v. De Rin*, L. R. 3 C. P. 538; S. C. L. R. 5 C. P. 473.

(b) 2 B. & Ad. 385; see S. C. 9 B. & C. 208.

(c) *Byles on Bills*, 9th ed. p. 401; and see *Gorgier v. Mieville*, 3 B. & C. 45.

(d) *Ante*, p. 432.

of the place where his contract is made has as much claim to govern one liability as the other.

It may be remarked that it was held on more than one occasion that the English statute (3 & 4 Anne, c. 9) rendering promissory notes transferable, applied to notes made without the jurisdiction.^(a) Those decisions, however, were simply given upon the words of the statute, which provided that "all notes" should be negotiable in the manner specified; and was interpreted as meaning that, within the jurisdiction, all notes which came under the descriptive words, without regard to the place of their making, should be transferable accordingly. "It is for the advantage of commerce," the Court said, in the latter case, "that foreign as well as inland bills should be negotiable." No question of international law is necessarily involved in this interpretation, unless it had been shown, which it was not, that the law of the country where the note was made absolutely prohibited its negotiability. In a country where such a prohibition existed, a note in such a form as to come within the provisions of the statute would never have been made at all.

It has been seen above,^(b) that the contract of the acceptor of a bill is to be governed by the law of the place of acceptance, following the *prima facie* rule that contracting parties intend their liability to be regulated by the law of the place where it is created. This doctrine has been extended from the contract of acceptance to the mere agreement to accept. In *Scott v. Pilkington* ^(c) the action was brought on an American judgment, the original claim in America being against the defendants for breach of a contract made in New York to honour acceptances of third parties, from whom the plaintiffs had purchased bills drawn on the faith of the defendants' promise. The defendants resided in England, and their contract was accordingly to accept the bills there; but the Court of Queen's Bench held that the American tribunal had rightly applied the law of New York to their liability,

(a) *Bentley v. Northouse*, Moo. & M. 66; *Milne v. Graham*, 1 B. & C. 192. See, however, *contra*, *Carr v. Shaw*, cited in Bayley on Bills, 4th ed. 22. (b) *Ante*, p. 431. (c) 2 B. & S. 11.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

Effect of 3 &
4 Anne, c. 9.

Agreement to
accept bill.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

and that it was therefore necessary to decide how far a foreign judgment may be examined for a mistake in English or private international law.(a) "The question at issue," said Cockburn, C.J., "has no relation to the manner of performing the contract, or to the consequences of non-performance. . . . It is contended that the law of England, as that of the place of performance, ought to prevail. We are of a contrary opinion, it appearing to us that the question of the defendants' liability must be determined by the *lex loci contractus*." It was stated in the course of the judgment that, if the promise of the defendants had been given in England, the English law would not have held them liable to third parties who should purchase bills drawn on them for acceptance from the drawers; but that liability was imposed by the law of the place where the contract was made, and it was held that the American Court had rightly applied that law.

Code of
proposed rules
for bills of
exchange.

The divergences in the law of different States relating to bills of exchange, and the resulting inconveniences, gave rise to considerable discussion at the Bremen and Antwerp Conferences (1876 and 1877) of the Association for the Codification and Reform of the Law of Nations; and it may be of interest to quote the code of rules to regulate this subject which was adopted at the last Conference, as given in the Report for that year of the Association. The subject is to be reconsidered at the Frankfort Conference of 1878.

*Principles for an International Law to govern
Bills of Exchange.*

1. The capacity to contract by means of a bill of exchange shall be governed by the capacity to enter into a contract generally.
2. To constitute a bill of exchange it shall be necessary to insert on the face of the instrument the words "Bill of Exchange" or their equivalent.
3. It shall not be obligatory to insert on the face of the

(a) *Infra*, Chap. XI.

instrument, or on any indorsement, the words "value received," nor to state the consideration.

4. Usances shall be abolished.

5. The validity of a bill of exchange shall not be affected by the absence or insufficiency of a stamp.

6. A bill of exchange shall be deemed negotiable to order, unless restricted in express words on the face of the instrument or on an indorsement.

7. The making of a bill of exchange to "bearer" shall not be allowed.

8. The rule of law of *distantia loci* shall not apply to bills of exchange.

9. A bill of exchange shall be negotiable by blank indorsement.

10. The indorsement of an overdue bill of exchange which has not been duly protested for dishonour for non-payment shall convey to the holder a right of recourse only against the acceptor and indorsers subsequent to due date. Where due protest has been made, the holder shall only possess the rights of the indorser to him against the acceptor, drawer, and prior indorsers.

11. The acceptance of a bill of exchange must be in writing on the face of the bill itself. The signature of the drawee (without additional words (a)) shall constitute acceptance, if written on the face of the bill.

12. The drawee may accept for a less sum than the amount of the bill.

13. In case of dishonour for non-acceptance or for conditional acceptance, the holder shall have an immediate right of action against the drawer and the indorsers for payment of the amount of the bill and expenses, less discount.

14. The cancellation of a written acceptance shall be of no effect.

15. Where the acceptor shall have committed an act of bankruptcy before due date, the holder shall have an immediate right of action against the drawer and indorsers

(a) See *Hindhaugh v. Blakey*, L. R. 3 C. P. D. 136, to meet which decision the statute 41 & 42 Vict. c. 13, was introduced; re-enacted by s. 17 of the Bills of Exchange Act, 1882 (45 & 46 Vict. c. 61), making signature a sufficient acceptance.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Incidents.*

for payment of the amount of the bill and expenses, less discount.

16. No days of grace shall be allowed.

17. The holder of a bill of exchange shall not be bound, in seeking recourse, by the order of succession of the indorsements, nor by any prior election.

18. Protest, or noting for protest, shall be necessary to preserve the right of recourse upon a bill of exchange dishonoured for non-acceptance or for non-payment.

19. Immediate notice of dishonour shall be necessary to preserve the right of recourse upon a bill of exchange.(a)

20. The time within which protest must be made shall be extended in the case of *vis major* during the time of the cause of interruption, but shall not in any event exceed a short period of time to be fixed by the code.

21. No annulling clause need be inserted in duplicates.

22. A simultaneous right of action on a bill of exchange shall be allowed against all or any one or more of the parties to the bill.

23. The surety upon the bill (*donneur d'aval*) shall be primarily liable with the person whose surety he is.

24. The capacity of a foreigner to contract by means of a bill of exchange shall be governed by the law of his country; but a foreigner who enters into a contract of exchange, being incapable of binding himself by such a contract in his own country, shall be bound, if he is capable of binding himself by such a contract under the law of the country in which he contracts.

25. In the foregoing articles the term "bill of exchange" shall include "promissory note," where such interpretation is applicable; but "promissory note" shall not apply to coupons, bankers' cheques, and other similar instruments in those countries where such instruments are classed as promissory notes.

(a) Substituted at the Frankfort Conference in 1878 for "Default of notice of dishonour for non-acceptance or non-payment shall not entail upon the holder or other parties to a bill of exchange the loss of their right of recourse for the amount of the bill, but the defaulting party shall nevertheless be liable for any damage occasioned by such default."

Agency.—It has been seen that the obligation of a contract, throughout the incidents of its development, but excluding all questions which relate to performance, depends upon the law to which the contracting parties intended to submit themselves for the purposes of their contract; and that this law will be, in the majority of cases, the law of the place where the contract was made. When, however, a man contracts by his agent in a foreign country, the question of the extent of that agent's authority, and of the liability of the principal on his agreements, presents itself as a distinct part of the obligation between the principal and the person with whom he has contracted. The cases have been already considered which relate to the authority of a master of a ship in a foreign port to pledge the credit or property of the owners of ship or cargo,^(a) or to dispose of either by sale. It was shown, however, that the rules by which the agency of a ship-master are governed are in themselves peculiar, and not necessarily applicable to the case of an agent who stands in no such exceptional position. The ordinary rule of course is, that the man who contracts in a foreign place by an agent does so in point of law by himself: "*Qui facit per alium facit per se.*" "If I, residing in England," said Lord Lyndhurst, "send down my agent to Scotland, and he makes contracts for me there, it is the same as if I myself went there and made them."^(b) And on this principle it would seem that if once you clothe a man with general authority to represent himself as your agent in a foreign country, those who contract with him there may fairly presume that he is your agent in the sense in which their local law interprets the term. In the absence of anything to indicate a contrary intention, they may be also taken to have supposed that the contract with you as principal, as well as the relation between principal and agent, would be governed by that law. When the agent is the master of a ship, the fact that she flies a foreign flag is, on the

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

Authority of
agent.

Contract by
agent abroad.

(a) *Ante*, pp. 405, 416; *Lloyd v. Guibert*, L. R. 1 Q. B. 115.
(b) *Pattison v. Mills*, 1 Dow & Cl. 342, 363.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.English
maritime law.

principle of *Lloyd v. Guibert*,^(a) sufficient to indicate an exceptional intention that the obligation of the contract shall not be governed by the local law. In such cases, as before explained, the law of the flag is taken to be that to which both parties have submitted themselves for the purposes of their contract; but in the cases of ordinary mercantile agency there is nothing to indicate a similar intention. It may be added here, that in the case of bottomry bonds at least, it is assumed to have been the intention of the parties that not only the obligation and incidents, but the formalities of the contract, should be governed by English law.^(b) The author last cited protests against the attempt to control such cases as those of foreign bottomry bonds by any principles of private international law. English maritime law, according to his view, is not a municipal law at all, and is therefore not included in a subject which treats of the conflict of municipal laws alone; though it is admitted that Story expresses a practical dissent from this view. It is difficult, indeed, to see how it is consistent with any logical classification of law whatever. Municipal law is properly all law, written or unwritten, enacted or adopted by a sovereign State for the use of its own Courts, or developed by those Courts from such enactments and adoptions. Private international law is the system or collection of principles on which the Courts of any particular State act, when one or more foreign municipal laws claim to compete with the municipal law of their own Government, and when it is doubtful how far the domestic municipal law which those Courts are primarily bound to obey was intended to apply to the particular circumstances, subject-matter, or persons of the litigation. Theoretically speaking, this system or collection of principles is the same, or should be the same, in the courts of all civilised States; and, so far as uniformity is attained or attainable, the subject of

(a) L. R. 1 Q. B. 115; *ante*, p. 393; *The Osmanli*, 7 Notes of Cases, 322, 335; *The North Star*, 29 L. J. Ad. 73, 76; *The Nelson*, 1 Hagg. Ad. 169; see Brodie's note to Stair's Inst. ii. 955, cited Story, Conflict of Laws, § 286 b.

(b) MacLachlan on Shipping, p. 166.

private international law approaches to the dignity of a science. According to this view, all principles of law must be either municipal or international, and English maritime law appears plainly to be a compound of both; differing not at all, in this particular, from English mercantile law and many other branches of jurisprudence. It is owing to the nature of its subject-matter that so much of the municipal law contained in it has been borrowed from foreign sources; and that a conflict of municipal laws, to be solved by the principles of private international law, so often arises in its administration. The attempt, however, to treat English maritime law as something anomalous and distinct in itself (a) appears illogical and unnecessary.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.
Contract—
Incidents.

With regard to the question of foreign agents, an exception has been grafted by the English mercantile law on the ordinary law of agency, which it will be as well to notice in this place. The rule that an undisclosed principal is liable on the contracts which are entered into by his agent on his behalf, has been held not to be applicable to the case of a foreign constituent contracting by an English commission merchant in this country. "It is well known in ordinary cases, where a merchant resident abroad buys goods here through an agent, that the seller contracts with the agent, and there is no contract or privity between him and the foreign principal." (b) The nature of this exception is better explained in *Armstrong v. Stokes*, (c) where it is said by Blackburn, J., delivering the judgment of the Court: "The great inconvenience that would result if there were privity of contract established between the foreign constituents of a commission merchant and the home suppliers of the goods has led to a course of business, in consequence of which it has been long settled that a foreign constituent does not give the commission

English agent
of foreign
merchant
regarded as
principal.

(a) MacLachlan on Shipping, pp. 166-168; see on this question, *Lloyd v. Guibert*, L. R. 1 Q. B. 125; *The Segredo*, 1 Eocl. & Ad. 45; *The Hamburg*, 33 L. J. Ad. 116; *The Patria*, L. R. 3 A. & E. 461.

(b) *Smyth v. Anderson*, 18 L. J. C. P. 109; 7 C. B. 33.

(c) L. R. 7 Q. B. 598, 605.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Incidents.

merchant authority to pledge his credit to those from whom the commissioner buys them by his order and on his account. It is true that this was originally (and in strictness is perhaps still) a question of fact; but the inconvenience of holding that privity of contract was established between a Liverpool merchant and the grower of every bale of cotton which is forwarded to him in consequence of his order given to a commission merchant at New Orleans, or between a New York merchant and the supplier of every bale of goods purchased in consequence of an order to a London commission merchant, is so obvious and so well known, that we are justified in treating it as a matter of law, and saying that, in the absence of evidence of an express authority to that effect, the commission agent cannot pledge his foreign constituent's credit." Both these cases were recognised and adopted in *Hutton v. Bullock*,^(a) and in the Exchequer Chamber, Keating, J., intimated that the question was not wholly one of fact, inasmuch as the presumption of law was against holding that an English agent had authority so to bind his foreign principal. These cases would no doubt be followed, even though the law of the country where the foreign principal was domiciled, or from which he sent authority to the English agent, imposed upon him the liability which the English law does not. Except in the event of such an additional element for consideration being introduced, the principle on which they rest does not strictly belong to the domain of private international law.

Performance
—controlled
by *lex loci
solutionis*.

(3) *Performance of the Contract*.—The performance of a contract, when a special place for performing it is expressly or impliedly agreed upon, is regulated as to mode, time, and conditions by the law of that place.^(b) This is of course in accordance with the intention of the parties; for to whatever law they may be presumed to have submitted themselves as far as the formalities of the contract are

(a) L. R. 8 Q. B. 331; S. C. L. R. 9 Q. B. 572.

(b) Per Tindal, C.J., in *Trimby v. Vignier*, 4 M. & S. 695, 704.

concerned,(a) or the unforeseen incidents which may arise out of the obligation,(b) it can hardly be doubted that those who contract that a thing shall be done in a particular place intend it to be done in the manner prescribed by the law of that place, and no other. But as the intention of the parties is the true test, there may be exceptions even to this general rule. "Even with respect to any performance that is to take place abroad, the parties may still have desired that their liabilities and obligations shall be governed by English law."(c)

Where no place of performance is agreed upon, expressly or by implication, the intention is presumed to be that the contract shall be performed where it was entered into, and where the promiser assumed his liability.(d) Thus we have seen, in the case of a bill of exchange, that the contract of an acceptor is governed, so far as the time and mode of payment is concerned, by the law of the place where the acceptance was given.(e) When, however, a bill is accepted payable at a particular place, the contract of the acceptor is to pay there and nowhere else; and all the incidents of payment, such as the right to an extension of the time by days of grace,(f) or the sufficiency of notice of dishonour,(g) are tacitly submitted to the operation of the law of that place. The liability of the debt to carry interest, and the rate at which that will be calculated, will similarly depend upon the law of the place where payment is to be made;(h)

Incidents of
performance.

(a) *Ante*, p. 352.

(b) *Ante*, pp. 387 sq.

(c) *Jacobs v. Crédit Lyonnais*, 12 Q. B. D. 589.

(d) *Don v. Lippman*, 5 Cl. & F. 1, 12, per Lord Brougham. It appears from this case that the Scotch law under similar circumstances considers the place of intended performance to be that of the promiser's domicile when the time for performance arrives.

(e) *Ante*, pp. 430 sq.; *Cooper v. Waldegrave*, 2 Beav. 282; *Burrows v. Jemino*, 2 Str. 733; *Potter v. Brown*, 15 East, 124; *Rouquette v. Overman*, L. R. 10 Q. B. 525.

(f) *Byles on Bills*, 11th ed. pp. 398, 399. See Bills of Exchange Act, 1882 (45 & 46 Vict. c. 61), s. 72.

(g) *Rothschild v. Currie*, 1 Q. B. 43; *Hirschfeld v. Smith*, L. R. 1 C. P. 340; *Rouquette v. Overman*, L. R. 10 Q. B. 525.

(h) *Ferguson v. Fyffe*, 8 Cl. & F. 121; *Elkins v. E. I. Co.*, 1 P. Wm. 395; *Thompson v. Poyles*, 2 Simons, 194. Bills of Exchange Act, 1882 (45 & 46 Vict. c. 61), s. 72.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Performance.*Contract for
carriage
within two
jurisdictions.

which will be, as already pointed out, the place where the contract for payment was made if no special place of payment was agreed upon. The old cases upon the question of the lawful rate of interest in cases of a conflict of law upon that point are collected by Westlake,^(a) but have lost much of their importance since the usury laws have been repealed; but it has been decided that, in the event of a subsequent contract in consideration of forbearance for a higher rate of interest than that originally stipulated for, entered into in a country whose usury laws differ from those of the place of the first agreement, the law of the place of the new contract will prevail, both in the case where it permits a higher rate,^(b) or imposes a lower rate,^(c) than the law of the original agreement. So a payment of a smaller sum in satisfaction of the whole, though not sufficient to discharge the debtor according to our law,^(d) has been held sufficient to discharge the drawer of a bill, and therefore, it would seem, the acceptor, when made in the country where the bill was drawn, and there regarded as a good and effectual accord and satisfaction.^(e) The question of the proper law applicable to the performance of a different kind of contract arose in a case which has already been referred to,^(f) where a railway company had entered into a contract at Boulogne for the conveyance of a passenger and his luggage from that place to London, and it became a question what law was applicable to the carriage. It was not necessary to answer the doubt, as the defendants were confessedly liable for the loss which had occurred by the law of France, and were eventually held to be so by the law of England also; but the necessity, and at the same time the difficulty, of always referring questions relating to the performance of a contract to the law of the place of

(a) Westlake, § 206.

(b) *Conner v. Bellamont*, 2 Atk. (Cas. temp. Hardw.) 382.(c) *Devar v. Span*, 3 T. R. 425.(d) *Cumber v. Wane*, 1 Sm. L. C. 341, and notes.(e) *Balli v. Denistoun*, 6 Ex. 483.(f) *Cohen v. South-Eastern Ry. Co.*, 2 Ex. D. 253.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Performance.

performance was well indicated by Brett, L.J.: "In this case the ticket is taken at Boulogne, and all that has to be done is to be performed on an English steamer and on an English railway. But in cases which occur every day, the ticket is taken in Paris, and the first part of the journey is performed on a French railway; the ticket is taken in Paris at an office, as everybody knows, held by the South-Eastern Company, and on the head of the ticket, like this we have now before us, is 'South-Eastern Railway Company'; therefore the first part of the journey is performed under a contract made between the South-Eastern Company in Paris and an Englishman; but the first part of the journey is to be carried out and performed on a French railway, and the two following parts on an English steamer and on an English railway respectively; and unless you could say that the three were entirely separate contracts, we should be called upon to say what law was to govern the first part of the journey, and whether that first part of the journey was to be ruled by the French law, and the other two by the English law. I, therefore, should find considerable difficulty in saying whether the contract as to the first part of the journey was to be considered as a French contract or an English one." (a) When it is remembered that the question before the Court was as to the legal effect of a condition on the ticket issued by the railway company limiting their liability in the event of loss, it will be seen how strong was the tendency in the mind of the judge to admit the supremacy of the law of the place where the contract was to be performed, even if it became necessary for that object to subdivide the nature of the obligation which was undertaken once for all, and evidenced by a single written instrument. The more correct view is probably that such a question is in reality one of the interpretation of the contract, or, at any rate, of the nature of the obligation created by it, and does not properly belong to its performance at all. In such a case it has already been seen that

(a) *Cohen v. South-Eastern Ry. Co.*, L. R. 2 Ex. D. 253, 262.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Performance.

Contract for
carriage—law
contemplated
by parties to.

the determination of the question depends *prima facie* upon the law of the place where the contracting parties entered into their agreement; (a) and this was in fact the substance of the decision in *Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company v. Shand*; (b) though in that case the law of England derived an additional claim from the fact that the parties were domiciled British subjects. It has been already pointed out that, where the parties to a contract may assume or impose any extent of liability at will, the question of the law applicable to the interpretation of the contract and the nature of the obligation is to be decided by a reference to their intention; and in the case just referred to, it was considered as improbable that British domiciled subjects contracting for carriage from an English port, commencing in an English vessel, could have had any other law in their contemplation but their own. In *Lloyd v. Guibert* (c) an attempt was made to extend the operation of the law of the place of performance even further than the suggestion in *Cohen v. South-Eastern Railway Company*. (d) There a French ship was chartered by an Englishman at a Danish port for a voyage from Hayti to Havre, London, or Liverpool, at the charterer's option, the option being ultimately exercised by naming the last of those places. On the voyage the ship had to put into a Portuguese port for repairs, where the master gave a bottomry bond on ship, freight, and cargo. The owner of the cargo, having had to make certain payments in respect of this bond, sued the shipowners for indemnity; and the question was, by what law the liability of the shipowners was to be determined, they having abandoned the ship and freight to the shippers, and being thus, according to the law of France, freed from further liability. The law of France, as the law of the ship's flag at the time of the execution of the charter-party, was ultimately held entitled to prevail; but as none of the other competing laws similarly discharged the defendants, they

(a) *Ante*, p. 382.(c) L. R. 1 Q. B. 115; *ante*, p. 393.

(b) 3 Moo. P. C. 272.

(d) L. R. 2 Ex. D. 253.

were all of course put forward in the argument for the owner of the cargo. It was, perhaps rather extravagantly, contended that the law of England was entitled to be heard, as the law of the place of the final act of performance by the delivery of the cargo ("*quasi lex loci solutionis*"); but it is manifest, as was pointed out in the judgment, that the delivery was but a small part of the performance, by which the character of the whole contract could not reasonably be determined; and it may be added that the law of the place even of full performance has no right to decide the interpretation of the original contract, or the nature of the obligation created, in matters apart from the performance itself. There is nothing *prima facie* in such a contract to show that the parties to it intended to adopt the law of the locality of performance for any other matters than those which are necessarily connected with it.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. VIII.
*Contract—
Performance.*

The question of illegal performance has already been considered,^(a) but it may be convenient to repeat here that when a contract, wherever made, contemplates some act or object which is forbidden by the law of the place of intended performance, the contemplated illegality will vitiate the whole agreement *ab initio*. Thus a contract, the performance of which in England, according to its intention, would have amounted to champerty, was held not the less void because made in a country where its object would have been legal, and with a subject of that foreign country.^(b) If, however, the performance of the contract in the country where that was intended to be done infringes no law, and the contract was made in a country by which its stipulations and consideration were lawful, the agreement is not void because the law of the place of performance would have forbidden the exchange of the particular promise for the particular consideration within its own dominion. Thus a railway company who were forbidden by English statute to depart from a uniform rate of charge for carriage, were allowed nevertheless to

Performance
—when
illegal.

(a) *Ante*, p. 365.

(b) *Grell v. Levy*, 16 C. B. N. S. 73; see *Heriz v. Riera*, 11 Sim. 318.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Performance.*

contract in Boulogne for the conveyance of "packed parcels" (*colis groupés*) at an enhanced price, such a contract being permitted by the law of France, where it was made, and the conveyance of packed parcels, apart from the previous agreement as to price, being of course not illegal by the law of the place of performance.(a) In this case the carriage of the goods commenced, it will be seen, from a French port, and it by no means follows that the company could have contracted in their office at Boulogne or Paris for a carriage which was both to commence and end in English territory. Such a transaction would clearly amount to an evasion of the English law, and it is unnecessary to recapitulate authorities to show that the comity of nations never requires any law to recognise its own clandestine defeasance.

Adjudgment of
average—not
an incident of
performance.

The cases in which general average is calculated according to the law of the port of destination are not, as has been already said, strictly cases which come under the head of performance at all. The effect of a stipulation, however, that underwriters are to be liable for average "as per foreign statement" has some connection with this branch of the subject. In such a case the construction which has been put upon the agreement is, not merely that the calculations of the foreign average-stater are to be accepted as correct, but that the decision of the law of the foreign port as to what is and what is not a general average loss is to be taken as conclusive,(b) and that the opinion of the foreign average-stater, both as to facts and law, is to bind all parties.(c) Nor is the provision that general average is to be payable "as per judicial foreign statement" to be considered as adopting the foreign law for any other purpose, as, for example, in order to decide what constitutes a loss by "perils of the sea."(d) The desirability of establishing uniformity, by international agreement, in the rules applicable to the subject of

(a) *Branley v. South-Eastern Ry. Co.*, 12 C. B. N. S. 63.

(b) *Mavro v. Ocean Marine Insurance Co.*, L. R. 10 C. P. 414.

(c) *Harris v. Scaramanga*, L. R. 7 C. P. 481.

(d) *Greer v. Poole*, 5 Q. B. D. 272.

general average, was much discussed at the annual Conference of the Association for the Reform and Codification of the Law of Nations held at Antwerp in September 1877. The practical result of this debate, in the shape of a code of rules called the "York and Antwerp Rules," will be found set out above; (a) but it is of course to be understood that, until adopted by the Legislature, no such agreement can have the effect of modifying the administration in English courts of either municipal or private international law.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Performance.

When a vessel is chartered to deliver cargo at a certain port, the law or custom which prevails at the port of delivery is impliedly adopted for all that is to be done there. Thus in *Robertson v. Jackson* (b) the ship was chartered to take a cargo of coals from the Tyne to Algiers, and there deliver on payment of freight. The charterer engaged that the ship should be unloaded at a certain average rate per day; and that, in the event of further detention, he would pay for such detention at the rate of £5 a day, to reckon from the time of the vessel being ready to unload and *in turn to deliver*. It was proved that, according to the general regulations of the port of Algiers, vessels may commence unloading as soon as they enter within the mole; but that, by a special regulation of the French Government, coals destined for the use of the Marine Department were required to be unladen at a particular spot and in a given order. It was held by the Court of Common Pleas, that evidence was admissible to show that the words "in turn to deliver" had by the usage of the particular trade acquired a known meaning in reference to this special regulation with respect to coals for the use of the French Marine Department, although the shipowner was not cognizant of the fact that the coals had been shipped under a contract with the French Government; and that the special regulation as to the unloading of coals for the French Marine Department was to be con-

(a) *Ante*, p. 422.

(b) 2 C. B. 412; *Hudson v. Clementson*, 18 C. B. 213; 25 L. J. C. P. 234.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Discharge.

Contract dis-
charged other-
wise than by
performance.

sidered one of the regulations of the port, binding upon all vessels entering it. These questions are in fact strictly connected with the *interpretation* of the contract, and the intention of the contracting parties.(a)

(4.) *Discharge of Contract.*—The natural end of every contract is in performance or breach; but, under certain circumstances, the obligation may be discharged in a different manner. Such answers to actions on the contract as are in the nature of set-off or counter-claim belong clearly to the head of Procedure, on which the *lex fori* is supreme, and will be subsequently mentioned.(b) Defences which arise under statutes of prescription or limitation are more ambiguous in their character, but it will be shown in its proper place that these matters also are strictly to be referred to the subject of Procedure,(c) and have nothing to do with any supposed inherent quality in the contract. The question of discharge proper is therefore confined to the cases where the person under the obligation is released from the effect of his promise, and from the necessity of performing it, in a manner not contemplated by the original agreement, nor the mere indirect consequence of the peculiar rules of some particular tribunal as to the proper time and mode of granting a remedy. The instance most commonly given of such a discharge is that which results from the bankruptcy or insolvency of the debtor; but other instances, as, for example, the discharge of a surety by giving time to the principal, may be easily suggested. Tender is, in fact, a species of performance, and does not come within the present branch of the subject; while the defence of infancy, though referred to by Story under this head,(d) is really based on an inherent defect in the validity of the obligation, and has been already discussed in its proper place.

Discharge by
lex loci.

With respect, then, to discharge proper, the rule is stated by Story to be that a defence or discharge, good by

(a) *Ante*, p. 382.

(b) *Infra*, Chap. X.

(c) *Infra*, Chap. X.; Story, Conflict of Laws, § 576.

(d) Story, Conflict of Laws, § 332; *Male v. Roberts*, 3 Esp. 163.

the law of the place where the contract is made or is to be performed, is to be held of equal validity in every other place where the question may come to be litigated.(a) The loose wording of this *dictum* leaves it doubtful which law is to govern the question of discharge when the contract is made within one jurisdiction to be performed in another; and the same phrase is repeated subsequently, where it is said conversely that a discharge of a contract by the law of a place where the contract was not made or to be performed will not be a discharge of it in any other country.(b) In the majority of the cases where a contract is discharged by bankruptcy, the contract discharged is a contract to pay money *simpliciter*, without any special reference to a particular place of payment or performance; and in those cases the maxim above quoted is well established in English law.(c) "There is no doubt," said Bovill, C.J., in *Ellis v. M^r Henry*, "that a debt or liability arising in any country may be discharged by the laws of that country; and that such a discharge, if it extinguishes the debt or liability, and does not merely interfere with the remedies or course of procedure to enforce it, will be an effectual answer to the claim, not only in the courts of that country, but in every other country. That is the law of England; and it is a principle of private international law adopted in other countries." And, as a general rule, apart from the question of the validity of a discharge by the law of the place of performance claiming to speak as the *lex contractus*, the converse proposition asserted by Story, that the discharge of a debt or liability by the law of a country other than that where the debt or liability was contracted will not discharge the debtor in any other country, has met with equal recognition in English law. Thus, where the defendants, a French company domiciled in France, had contracted, by their agents in England, with the

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Discharge.

(a) Story, *Conflict of Laws*, § 331. (b) *Ibid.*, § 342.

(c) *Ellis v. M^r Henry*, L. R. 5 C. P. 228; 40 L. J. C. P. 109; *Phillips v. Eyre*, 40 L. J. Q. B. 28; *Gardiner v. Houghton*, 2 B. & S. 743; *Quelin v. Moisson*, Knapp, 265; *Odwin v. Forbes*, Buck, 57; *Potter v. Brown*, 5 East, 124; *Burrows v. Jemino*, 2 Str. 733.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

*Contract—
Discharge.*Discharge by
subordinate
jurisdiction.

plaintiffs for the sale of copper to be delivered and paid for in England, it was held that discharge in a liquidation in France did not afford a defence to an English action for non-delivery; nor was the fact that the plaintiffs had proved in the liquidation regarded as any ground for staying proceedings here.(a)

So far the subject has been considered with reference only to the legislation of independent sovereign States; but for English lawyers the case may most frequently arise with reference to the validity, in the subordinate jurisdiction, of a discharge created by the law of one country which has a paramount jurisdiction over the territory and tribunals of another. The question will then generally be how far the paramount authority intended to legislate, as it might lawfully do, for the tribunals of the subordinate jurisdiction. In the case of the Legislature of the United Kingdom enacting laws which are to be binding upon her colonies and dependencies, a discharge either in the colony or in the mother country may, by the imperial Legislature, be made a binding discharge in both, whether the debt or liability arose in one or the other; and a discharge created by an Act of Parliament in England would at any rate be binding upon the Courts of this country, so as to compel them to give effect to it in an action commenced here.(b) Thus it was laid down distinctly by Bayley, J., that a discharge of a debt pursuant to the provisions of an Act of Parliament, which is competent to legislate for every part of the United Kingdom, and to bind the rights of all persons residing either in Scotland or in England, and which purported to bind both classes of persons, operated as a discharge in both countries.(c) So an English certificate in bankruptcy has been decided to be a good answer to a debt arising in

(a) *Gibbs v. Société des Métaux*, C. A. Times Law Rep. June 27, 1890 (not yet reported); *Smith v. Buchanan*, 1 East, 6; *Bradley v. Hodges*, 1 B. & S. 375; *Ellis v. M^r Henry*, 40 L. J. C. P. 109, 114; *Phillips v. Allan*, 8 B. & C. 477; *Lewis v. Owen*, 4 B. & Ald. 654.

(b) *Ellis v. M^r Henry*, L. R. 6 C. P. 228; 40 L. J. C. P. 109.

(c) *Phillips v. Allan*, 8 B. & C. 447.

Calcutta and sued for in the Supreme Court there; (a) or to an action on a debt contracted in Ireland and sued for in England; (b) or to an action in the Scotch courts on a debt contracted in Scotland. (c) And on the same principle, a discharge under a Scotch sequestration, in pursuance of an Act of the imperial Parliament, has been held to be a good answer in an English court to an action on a debt contracted in England. (d) The discrepancy between these cases and the decision in *Lewis v. Owen* (e) is only apparent. It was held in that case that a certificate under an Irish bankruptcy was no discharge of a debt contracted in England; but the principal question there raised and decided was whether the debt had arisen in England or not. That question being answered in the affirmative, it was no doubt held that the debt was not barred by the Irish certificate; but the paramount effect of the imperial legislation was not, and could not have been, taken into account, as the Irish bankrupt law at that time in force depended upon statutes of the Irish Parliament passed before the union. (f) In a later case, where a similar question arose as to the effect upon an English debt of an Irish bankruptcy under the provisions of an Act of the imperial Legislature (6 & 7 Will. IV. c. 14), it was held, in accordance with the principles previously stated, that the Irish certificate barred the English debt, (g) and a certificate of conformity under the present Irish Act (20 & 21 Vict. c. 60) has the same effect. (h) But the discharge effected by the bankruptcy must, of course, be absolute and unconditional, whether the countries whose laws are in conflict are independent sovereign States, or stand in the same position to each other that England occupies with respect to the other members of

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Discharge.

- (a) *Edwards v. Ronald*, Knapp, P. C. 259.
- (b) *Lynch v. M'Kenny*, 2 H. Bl. 554.
- (c) *Royal Bank of Scotland v. Cuthbert*, Rose, 462, 486.
- (d) *Sidaway v. Hay*, 3 B. & C. 12.
- (e) 4 B. & Ald. 654.
- (f) Per Bovill, C.J., in *Ellis v. M'Henry*, 40 L. J. C. P. 109, 115.
- (g) *Fergusson v. Spencer*, 1 M. & S. 987.
- (h) *Simpson v. Mirabita*, L. R. 4 Q. B. 257.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Discharge.

the United Kingdom. Thus it has been held that a discharge in Scotland by a *cessio bonorum* under the general Scotch law, which only discharged the person of the debtor, was no answer to an action brought in the English courts for the recovery of an English debt; (a) although, as already explained, the debt would have undoubtedly been held discharged if the discharge had been given under the authority of an Act of the imperial Legislature, as was the case in *Philpotts v. Reed*, (b) where a discharge in Newfoundland was held sufficient, though the debt had been contracted in England, and the action was brought in an English court.

The condition, that the debt should have been contracted within the jurisdiction of the paramount State, will not, in fact, be material so far as the Courts of that State, and of the jurisdictions subordinate to it, are concerned. "An adjudication of bankruptcy," said Sir J. Colville in the Privy Council, "followed by a certificate of discharge in this country under the bankruptcy laws passed by the imperial Legislature, has the effect of barring any debt which the bankrupt may have contracted in any part of the world; and it would have the effect of putting an end to any claims in the island of Barbados or elsewhere, to which the appellant might have been liable at the date of the adjudication." (c) So Pollock, C.B., says in another case: "A foreign certificate is no answer to a demand in our courts, but an English certificate is surely a discharge as against all the world in the English courts. The goods of the bankrupt all over the world are vested in the assignees, and it would be a manifest injustice to take the property of a bankrupt in a foreign country, and then to allow a foreign creditor to come and sue him here." (d) And when the discharge is merely under the local law of a colony or dependency of the British empire, without the authorisation of an Act of Parliament, it is plain that it cannot be assumed to operate upon a debt made

(a) *Phillips v. Allan*, 8 B. & C. 477; *Ex parte Burton*, 1 Atk. 255.

(b) 1 B. & B. 294.

(c) *Gill v. Barrow*, 37 L. J. P. C. 37.

(d) *Armani v. Castrique*, 13 M. & W. 447; 14 L. J. Ex. 36.

and to be performed in England.(a) "Neither was this debt contracted in Victoria," said Blackburn, J., in the case last cited, "nor to be discharged there, nor is either the plaintiff or defendant stated to be domiciled in that colony. . . . No case has been cited where the Act under which the discharge took place was not an Act of the imperial Legislature; and I therefore conclude that no such case exists. The assertion that, because the colony of Victoria has power to make laws, all laws which it may make have power to bind us in England, sufficiently refutes itself; it is enough to state the proposition." Notwithstanding the allusion in the passage just cited to the domicile of the parties, there appears to be no authority for saying that that circumstance will in any case give universal operation to the discharge of a debt which the rules already explained would refuse to recognise.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Discharge.

By the Bankruptcy Act, 1883 (46 & 47 Vict. c. 52), s. 30, a discharge under an English bankruptcy shall release the bankrupt from all debts provable under the bankruptcy (with the exception of Crown or Revenue debts and liabilities incurred by fraud or breach of trust); and the English Courts are therefore, of course, directed to accept a plea of an English bankruptcy as an answer to any action or contract, wherever made or wherever to be performed, if the plaintiff's claim was a debt provable under this statute. By s. 37 all debts or liabilities arising out of contract are so provable; so that the foreign creditor of an English bankrupt will lose his right of remedy in an English court unless he come in to prove his claim. Except, however, in the case of a contract made or to be performed in England, it is clear that a foreign Court could not be expected to recognise the English discharge,(b) upon the principles already explained. The question, how far a particular contract is provable, may sometimes arise with reference to the provisions of the *lex loci contractus* as to

Effect of
English
bankruptcy.

(a) *Bradley v. Hodges*, 1 B. & S. 375.

(b) *Smith v. Buchanan*, 1 East, 6; *Bradley v. Hodges*, 1 B. & S. 375; *Ellis v. M'Henry*, L. R. 6 C. P. 228; *Phillips v. Allan*, 8 B. & C. 477; *Lewis v. Owen*, 4 B. & Ald. 654; Story, Conflict of Laws, § 348.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Discharge.Effect of *lex
fori* on
discharge.

its validity; but unless that law declare the contract to be void *ab initio* if certain conditions are not complied with (in which case there would be no contract at all), it is difficult to see how the decision can legitimately be taken away from the *lex fori*. In a modern case before the Court of Appeal in Chancery, the bankrupt, who had been married in Batavia, had by an ante-nuptial contract settled a considerable sum of money on his wife for her separate use. By the law of Batavia no marriage contract excluding a community of goods has any effect as regards third parties until registered in the courts of that country. The contract in question had never been so registered; but it was nevertheless held that the wife of the bankrupt was entitled to prove against his estate for the sum settled. The ground of the decision was, of course, that the provision of the foreign law as to registration did not affect the validity of the contract, but only the remedy of those claiming under it; and that all questions of the priority of creditors must be determined by the law of the country where the bankruptcy takes place. If it had been held that the debt was not provable, it would of course have followed that the bankrupt's discharge had no effect upon it; and his after-acquired property would still have been subject to the claim. (a) "The contention is," said Mellish, L.J., "that the effect of the Batavian law is this, that, although there is a contract between the husband and the wife, there is none as respects third parties. I have great difficulty in understanding that argument. It is admitted that, as between husband and wife, there is a debt and a binding contract. Then what is the meaning of saying it shall not be binding as between third parties, or it shall not affect third parties? Surely it only means that in an administration of the assets of the husband in bankruptcy this claim is to be postponed to the claim of all other parties?" (b) The latter was, no doubt, the true construction of the Batavian law; and the provision, which

(a) *Ex parte Melbourn, In re Melbourn*, L. R. 6 Ch. 64; 40 L. J. Bank. 25.

(b) L. R. 6 Ch. 69.

thus assumed to govern the remedy alone, was rightly disregarded in an English court. Had the law of Batavia, on the other hand, provided that a contract entered into without certain prescribed formalities should be void altogether, there can be no doubt that the English bankruptcy law would not have admitted its proof.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Discharge.

The release of a surety by alteration of the contract with the principal debtor furnishes another instance of the discharge of a contract otherwise than by performance, or by the indirect operation of rules of procedure. By analogy with the bankruptcy decisions just cited, such a discharge by the law of the place where the surety entered into his obligation should be accepted in all countries alike. In cases where the surety's contract is to pay in a different country from that where he enters into his agreement some doubt may be felt; but inasmuch as the discharge by the action of the principals is neither a mode of performance nor a substitute for it, the law of the place where the contract was made seems the proper one to govern. The point is barren of authority, but it is quite clear that the *lex fori* can have nothing to do with the matter; and this inherent liability to discharge is in reality one of the incidents of the obligation which the *lex contractus* claims to decide. It has been already said that this *lex contractus* is selected by the intention of the parties, but that *prima facie* it will be the law of the place where the contract is entered into.(a)

Discharge of
surety's
obligation.

This principle, that the law which was originally intended to govern the nature of the obligation must decide what is and what is not a discharge, is applicable in strictness

(a) The question of the liability of a surety, and its transmission to his heir, is, it may be remarked, the only subject on which any indication is found in Roman jurisprudence of private international law. "The heir of a *fide-promissor*," said Gaius, "is not bound by the contract of suretyship; unless the question of a foreign *fide-promissor* is under consideration, and the law of his State differs from ours on this point" (Gaius, III. 120; see *ibid.* III. 96). It is probable, however, that Gaius contemplated the case of a contract made abroad, in the State to which all the parties belonged: and meant merely that in the event of the contract of suretyship coming before the *prætor peregrinus*, he would not adopt the Roman law simply as the *lex fori*.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

Contract—
Discharge.Discharge by
novation.

only to those discharges the liability to which was not necessarily foreseen as an incident of the contract, and which are not brought about by the will and choice of the parties themselves. A contract may, in a certain sense, be discharged by a *novation*; which is not a performance, but may be regarded as an agreed substitute for performance. There can be no doubt that a novation discharging the original obligation, and putting a new one in its place, if made according to the law of the place where performance was intended to take place, would be regarded as valid even in the courts of the original place of celebration. Nor can any good reason be assigned why equal effect should not be given to a release, extinguishment, or novation made in any other country in accordance with the *lex loci*; except the argument which claims respect for the inherent liability to discharge or the inherent permanence of the original obligation. The inherent nature of the obligation ought, no doubt, to be strong enough to prevail against all incidents of law or fact except the will, expressed in action, of the contracting parties; but they are unquestionably competent to put an end to it whenever they please, and may reasonably suppose that an act or contract according to the forms of the place where they happen to be is the most effectual way of doing so. Accordingly, it is said by Lord Brougham in *Warrender v. Warrender*,^(a) combating the contention that a Scotch divorce was incompetent to dissolve the marriage in England of a domiciled Scotchman; “in what other contract of a nature merely personal—in what other transaction between men—is such a rule ever applied? such an arbitrary and gratuitous distinction made? such an exception raised to the universal position, that things are to be dissolved by the same process whereby they are bound together; or, rather, that the tie is to be loosened by reversing the operation which knit it, but reversing the operation according to the same rules? What gave force to the ligament? If a contract for sale of a chattel

(a) 9 Bligh, 89, at p. 124.

is made, or an obligation of debt is incurred, or a chattel is pledged in one country, the sale may be annulled, the debt released, and the pledge redeemed by the law and by the forms of another country in which the parties happen to reside, and in whose courts their rights and obligations come in question; unless there was an express stipulation in the contract itself against such avoidance, release, or redemption." The word "reside" is used in the passage just cited, but should not be taken as implying any necessity that the parties should be domiciled in the country where the avoidance, release, or redemption takes place. In the case before Lord Brougham, the question was as to the liability to dissolution of a marriage contract, which differs essentially, as has been already pointed out,^(a) from the commercial contracts of every-day life. Such instances as the release of a debt, the redemption of a pledge, or the annulling of a sale are themselves in the nature of contractual acts; and as to these the law of the domicile of the parties has nothing to do either with their capacity to act or the necessary forms and mode of acting.

ESSENTIALS OF THE CONTRACT.

Generally, the essentials of a contract are governed by p. 375. that law which the parties intended by their agreement to adopt.

This law, *prima facie*, is the law of the place where the contract was made (*lex loci celebrationis*); but may be any other which the parties have sufficiently indicated their intention of adopting.

(1) *The construction and interpretation of contracts* is pp. 378 387. *prima facie* a matter for the *lex loci celebrationis*, but the object and subject-matter of the contract, the domicile of the parties, and the place of intended performance, may each and all indicate that the parties intended to refer the interpretation of their language to a different law.^(b)

(a) *Ante*, p. 339.

(b) As to the construction and interpretation of bills of exchange, see the Bills of Exchange Act, 1882 (45 & 46 Vict. c. 61), s. 72, (2).

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

pp. 387-392.

(2) *The nature and incidents of the obligation are also prima facie governed by the lex loci celebrationis, as the law which the parties are presumed to have intended to apply to the unforeseen incidents of the vinculum or legal tie.*

pp. 393-410.

But in contracts of affreightment and bottomry bonds the parties are presumed to have contracted with reference to the law of the ship's flag, that flag being a notice to all the world of the extent of the master's authority to bind his owners. The validity, however, of a sale by the master of the ship or cargo, in a foreign port, depends upon the *lex loci actus*, which governs the transfer, without reference to the law of the flag.

pp. 411-417.

p. 418.

The nature and extent of an agent's authority depend *prima facie* upon the law of the place where he is found acting as agent.

And where it is expressly or impliedly agreed that any future incidents of the contract shall be governed by the law of the place where they arise, that law will, of course, so far prevail.

pp. 427, 450.

Thus all incidents of performance will be governed by the law of the place of performance.

pp. 430-442.

Bills of Exchange Act,
1882 (45 & 46
Vict. c. 61),
s. 72.

The *form* of the drawing, acceptance, and indorsement of bills of exchange depends upon the law of the place where the bill is drawn, accepted, or indorsed.

But a bill issued abroad is not invalid by reason only that it is not stamped in accordance with the law of the place of issue.

And a bill issued abroad, which conforms to the requisites of English law, may be treated as valid for the purpose of enforcing payment, as between all parties who negotiate, hold, or become parties to it in the United Kingdom.

The duties of the holder as to presentment for payment or acceptance, and the necessity for a sufficiency of a protest or notice of dishonour, or otherwise, are determined by the law of the place where the act is done, or the bill is dishonoured.

The law of the place of payment determines the due date, and the amount is calculated on the rate of exchange at the place of payment.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. VIII.

The nature and incidents of a contract entered into by an agent in a foreign place, and the extent of the agent's authority, would also seem to depend, *prima facie*, upon the law of the place where the agent contracts. p. 447.

But in contracts of affreightment and hypothecation entered into by a master of a ship, the contract between the owners and freighters is referred to the law of the ship's flag; and *quære*, whether this principle does not extend to all contracts entered into by the master on behalf of the owners?

(3) *Performance of the Contract.*—Performance or non-performance of a contract, and the consequent dissolution of the obligation, is tested by the law of the place where the contract was intended to be performed. p. 450.

Quære, whether the unforeseen incidents of the obligation, which arise in the course of performance, are governed by the *lex loci celebrationis* or *solutionis*? *Semble*, the former, at any rate if any external facts, such as the domicile of the parties, tend to indicate an intention to adopt that law.

The illegality, by the law of the place of performance of the performance contracted for invalidates the contract *ab initio*. p. 455.

(4) *Discharge of the Contract otherwise than by Performance.*—The discharge of a contract, when not the natural result of the agreement, nor the indirect consequence of the rules of the *lex fori* as to the time within which a remedy must be sought, may be effected by the law of the place where the contract was made. p. 458.

A discharge by the laws or tribunals of a paramount Legislature, such as that of the United Kingdom, will bind tribunals of the subordinate jurisdictions, wherever the contract was made, if the paramount Legislature intended it to have that effect. p. 460.

But a discharge, to claim recognition in a foreign court, p. 464.

PART III. must be an absolute discharge of the obligation, and not a
ACTS. mere refusal of a remedy.

CAP. VIII. A contract may also be discharged by a novation or a
p. 466. release, forming a new agreement between the parties,
and executed according to the requirements of the *lex loci
actus*.

CHAPTER IX.

TORTS.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Jurisdiction.

THE question of the proper law applicable to an action based upon a tort committed abroad, and of the proper *forum* in which that law should be applied, has not arisen so frequently as the corresponding doubt with respect to contracts, but has nevertheless been the subject of late years of careful judicial consideration. It may be conveniently considered under three heads:—(i.) Jurisdiction with respect to torts, (ii.) the measure of the wrong done, (iii.) the measure of the remedy.

(i.) *Jurisdiction with respect to Torts.*—The formal distinction between local and transitory actions, arising from the old rules as to *venue*, has been already sufficiently considered; (a) and it need only be remarked that it operated upon actions based on tort in exactly the same way as upon actions based on contracts. Thus an action for a trespass or other tort to foreign land was formerly excluded from the English courts, not on any principle of private international law, but on the technical ground that it was absolutely necessary, for purposes of procedure, that the locality of the alleged grievance should be a country within English jurisdiction, where the action in question could be tried according to English law. This was first definitely held in *Skinner v. East India Company*, (b) so long ago as 1665; but the soundness of the rule was subsequently questioned by Lord Mansfield, (c) who took a distinction between actions which concerned

Torts to
foreign land.

(a) *Ante*, p. 324.(c) *Mostyn v. Fabrigas*, Cowp. 180.

(b) Cited in Cowp. 16

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Jurisdiction.Abolition of
rules of
venue.

the title to or possession of foreign immovables, and actions for personal damages for torts to those immovables. The full effect of the existing rules as to *venue* was not recognised in this expression of opinion, which was distinctly overruled in *Doulson v. Matthews*.^(a) The strictness of the rule, that no action which was local in the contemplation of English law could be brought in an English court, was thus again established, but on the technical ground of the rules as to *venue* alone. Now that these have been abolished by the Judicature Acts,^(b) the question again appears open for discussion. In a case which was decided after this alteration in the law,^(c) the litigants had by agreement waived any objection to the jurisdiction of the Court that might otherwise have been taken, or the point would have directly arisen. The action was brought by an English company, who owned a pier in Spain, against an English shipowner for damage done to the pier by the vessel coming into collision with it. The pier was of course an integral portion of Spanish soil; and after laying down the general rule, that no action can be maintained in England for a wrongful act, unless it is wrongful both by English law and by the law of the place where it was committed, Mellish, L.J., proceeded as follows: "Whether the rule as to wrongful acts to immovable property in a foreign country does not go still further, and prevent an action from being brought at all, is a question which it is not necessary to determine in this case; because, having regard to the consent of the parties and the agreement that has been come to, no objection to the jurisdiction could be taken." So it was said by James, L.J., in the same case, that had it not been for the agreement of the parties, very grave difficulties might have arisen as to the jurisdiction of the Court to entertain any action or proceedings whatever with respect to injuries done to foreign soil. That difficulties would arise there can be no doubt,

^(a) 4 T. R. 503.^(b) 38 & 39 Vict. c. 77; Order xxxvi. r. 1.^(c) *The M. Mozham*, L. R. 1 P. D. 107.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Jurisdiction.Local and
transitory
actions.

as the abolition of the rules of *venue* has cut away the main ground upon which the earlier decisions on the point were founded; but it is submitted that the result of the change has been to make the reasoning of Lord Mansfield in *Mostyn v. Fabrigas* (a) applicable to its full extent, and to remove all reasons that existed previously from excluding actions for damages in respect of injuries done to foreign immovables from English Courts. So long as the rules as to *venue* remained in force there was, as Lord Mansfield said, a formal and a substantial distinction between certain actions. The distinction between local and transitory actions was formal—based on the necessities and technicalities of English law, and capable of being modified as it had been created. The substantial distinction was that between actions the object of which could not be attained by an English judgment, and those to which an English writ could give full satisfaction—the former category comprising only those actions which were brought for the title to or possession of immovable property abroad. Actions for personal chattels actually situate within foreign jurisdiction could of course be satisfied if the defendant owner was within the control of an English Court, and were not excluded by any principle of international law like that which hedges the soil of a foreign State with an inviolable sanctity. The formal distinction has now been abolished, and the substantial distinction alone remains; but the substantial distinction never did affect such actions as those now under consideration—actions, that is, not for the title to or possession of foreign immovables, but for compensation in pecuniary damages for injuries done to them, brought against the person of the owner, and to be satisfied out of his movable personal estate. It would therefore seem that no reason now exists on principle why the latter class of actions should not be maintained in an English court, subject to those rules and restrictions by which all actions for torts committed abroad are governed, and which will be presently stated. (b)

(a) Cited Cowp. 167.

(b) *Infra*, p. 476.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Jurisdiction.

The *dicta*, however, of the judges in the case of *The M. Moxham*,^(a) which have just been quoted, show that the question can from no point of view be regarded as free from doubt.

The question of the jurisdiction of English Courts to try actions based on torts to foreign immovables has thus been shown to depend chiefly, if not entirely, upon the history of the law of *venue*, and its recent abolition. Personal torts, which were transitory and not local in their nature, were of course not affected by the old restriction.

The King's
peace.

There was at one time, however, another cause which might be regarded as limiting the jurisdiction with respect to certain personal trespasses, as assault. In the form of declaration for assault which was in use before the Common Law Procedure Act, 1852, the assault required to be laid and proved *contrà pacem regis*; a condition which of course could not be strictly complied with if it had taken place without the jurisdiction; and Lord Mansfield expressed a doubt whether this would not exclude the competency of the English Courts to try such cases at all.^(b) So far as this doubt was a technical one, based on the necessities of English procedure, it has of course been removed; nor does it in fact seem to have had any foundation in international principles. "The right of all persons," said Selwyn, L.J., "whether British subjects or aliens, to sue in the English courts for damages in respect of torts committed in foreign countries, has long since been established, and . . . there seems to be no reason why aliens should not sue in England for personal injuries done to them by other aliens abroad, when such injuries are actionable both by the law of England and also by that of the country where they are committed; and the impression which had prevailed to the contrary seems to be erroneous."^(c) Deferring for the present the subject of the measure of the wrong done, or of the remedy

^(a) L. R. 1 P. D. 107.

^(b) *Mostyn v. Fabrigas*, 1 Sm. L. C. 600, 658; S. C. Cowp. 161.

^(c) *The Halley*, L. R. 2 P. C. 193, 202; *The Amalia*, 1 Moo. P. C. N. S. 484.

available, the question of jurisdiction seems to be put beyond all reasonable doubt; and it may therefore be assumed that an English Court has a right to entertain all actions for personal wrongs, wherever and by whomsoever committed,(a) without any breach either of the comity of nations or the technical requirements of English law. With respect to the high seas, it would appear that, originally and independently of statute, the English Court of Admiralty exercised jurisdiction over all torts on the high seas.(b) And for the purposes of jurisdiction, it would seem that there is no distinction between the high seas and other waters or harbours "where great ships lie and hover,"(c) though the last class of cases seems confined to wrongs (whether viewed as crimes or torts) committed on board British ships, regarded as "floating islands." But the Admiralty Court (now the Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty Division) has not jurisdiction to entertain an action *in rem* for damages for loss of life under Lord Campbell's Act (9 & 10 Vict. c. 93), that jurisdiction not being transferred to the Court by 24 Vict. c. 10.(d)

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Nature.

It has been already shown, when dealing with contracts, that the question of service out of the jurisdiction is entirely regulated by Order XI. r. 1, of the Supreme Court Rules, which is intended by the Legislature as a complete code on the subject.(e) And "it is to be observed that the power which previously existed, of allowing service out of the jurisdiction is taken away, except so far as such a power is involved in sub-classes (a), (c), (f)."(f) Thus, where

Service out of
the juris-
diction—when
allowed.

(a) Except, of course, torts done, authorised, or sanctioned by a sovereign Power: *Buron v. Denman*, 2 Ex. 167; *ante*, p. 141.

(b) *The Valant* (1842), 1 W. Rob. 383; *The Lagan or Mimax* (1838), 3 Hagg. Adm. 418; *The Hercules* (1819), 2 Dod. 353; *The Ruckers* (1801), 4 C. Rob. 73; *De Lovio v. Boit*, 2 Gallison, 398 (Am.). In the last-cited case it was said by Story, J., that the English Court of Admiralty had jurisdiction over all torts committed on the high seas, and in harbours within the ebb and flow of the tide, quoting the Black Book (*temp. circa* Edward III.)

(c) *Reg. v. Carr*, 10 Q. B. D. 76; *Reg. v. Anderson*, L. R. 1 C. C. R. 161, 167; *Reg. v. Allen*, 1 Moo. C. C. 494; *Reg. v. Jemot*, cited in *Reg. v. Anderson*, p. 168.

(d) *The Vera Cruz* (2), 9 P. D. 96; 10 App. Cas. 59.

(e) *Re Eager*, 22 Ch. D. 87.

(f) Per Huddleston, B., in *Lenders v. Anderson*, 12 Q. B. D. 50. *Cf. Field v. Bennett*, 1 Times Law Rep. 374.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

*Torts—
Nature.*

damages only are proved within the jurisdiction, leave cannot be given.(a) The sub-clauses of Order XI. r. 1, referred to by Huddleston, B., are as follow:—

1. Service out of the jurisdiction of a writ of summons, or notice(b) of a writ of summons, may be allowed by the Court or a judge, whenever—

- (a) The whole subject-matter of the action is land, situate within the jurisdiction (with or without rents or profits); or
- (c) Any relief is sought against any person domiciled or ordinarily resident within the jurisdiction (see *ante*, p. 331); or
- (f) Any injunction is sought as to anything to be done within the jurisdiction, or any nuisance within the jurisdiction is sought to be prevented or removed, whether damages are or are not also sought in respect thereof.

Under (f) leave for service abroad has been granted where an injunction was sought to restrain the defendant from publishing a libel within the jurisdiction.(c)

(ii.) *Measure of the wrong done.*—The English Court, having jurisdiction to entertain in the first instance any claim in respect of an alleged foreign tort, has next to ascertain whether the act complained of was in fact unlawful. By what law is it to be guided in so doing? the law of the country where the act was committed? or that of England, where the remedy is sought? The answer to this has already indirectly been given. The action complained of must have been a legal wrong both by the law of the place where it was done, and by the law of England, where the action for damages is brought. "As a general rule," said Willes, J., delivering the judgment of the Court of Exchequer Chamber in *Phillips v. Eyre*,(d) "in order to found a suit in England for a wrong alleged to have been

Tort must be
actionable by
lex fori and
lex loci.

(a) *Shearman v. Findlay*, 32 W. R. 122.

(b) By Order XI. r. 6, notice of the writ can be served when the defendant is neither a British subject nor in British dominions.

(c) *Tozier v. Hawkins*, 15 Q. B. D. 680. Cf. *Bree v. Marescaux*, 7 Q. B. D.

434.

(d) L. R. 6 Q. B. 1, 28.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Nature.

committed abroad, two conditions must be fulfilled. First, the wrong must be of such a character that it would have been actionable if committed in England; therefore, in *The Halley* (a) the Judicial Committee pronounced against a suit in the Admiralty founded upon a liability by the law of Belgium for collision caused by the act of a pilot whom the shipowner was compelled by that law to employ, and for whom, therefore, as not being his agent, he was not responsible by English law. Secondly, the act must not have been justifiable by the law of the place where it was done." So it is said by Mellish, L.J., in the case of *The M. Moxham* (b): "The law respecting personal injuries and respecting wrongs to personal property appears to me to be perfectly settled that no action can be maintained in the courts of this country on account of a wrongful act either to a person, or to personal property, committed within the jurisdiction of a foreign country, unless the act is wrongful by the law of the country where it is committed, and also wrongful by the law of this country." The first part of this condition, that no action can be maintained for an act wrongful by the law of England, but legal or legalised by *ex post facto* legislation in the country where it was committed, is the proposition which has most frequently been the subject of debate. In *Blad's Case*, (c) Lord Nottingham held that a seizure in Iceland, authorised by the Danish Government and valid by the law of the place, could not be questioned by civil action in England, although the plaintiff, an Englishman, insisted that the seizure was in violation of a treaty between this country and Denmark—a matter for remonstrance between the Governments, not for litigation between the subjects. In *Dobree v. Napier*, (d) Admiral Napier having, when in the service of the Queen of Portugal, captured in Portuguese waters an English ship breaking blockade, was held to be civilly justified, by the law of Portugal and the law of nations, though his serving a foreign prince was

Tort—when
excused by
lex loci.

(a) L. R. 2 P. C. 193.

(b) L. R. 1 P. D. 107, at p. 111.

(c) 3 Swan. 603; *Blad v. Bamfield*, *ibid.* 604.

(d) 2 Bing. N. C. 781.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

*Torts—
Nature.*

contrary to English law, and subjected him to penalties under the Foreign Enlistment Act. So it was held that the master of an English vessel, indicted for an assault and false imprisonment, who had contracted with the Chilean Government to carry certain banished prisoners from Chili to Liverpool, and had in fact done so, after receiving and imprisoning the prisoners at Chili, could justify his acts under the authority of the Chilean Government in respect of all that had taken place within the local jurisdiction of Chili, but not in respect of the continued imprisonment when the ship had passed out of Chilean waters.^(a) This was a case of criminal indictment, but the reasons of the decision would of course have been equally applicable to a civil action for false imprisonment or trespass to the person. "We assume," said Erle, C.J., "that the Chilean Government could justify all that it did within its own territory, and we think it follows that the defendant can justify all that he did there as agent for the Government and under its authority." In *Phillips v. Eyre*,^(b) the last decision of importance on the subject, the defendant pleaded, to an action for false imprisonment and assault in the island of Jamaica, that since the grievances complained of a retrospective Act of indemnity had been passed by the Legislature of Jamaica, and it was held that this was a sufficient answer to the action; although the defendant was at the time the Governor of Jamaica, and had assented to the passing of the Act, which could not have become law without his sanction. This case was decided upon demurrer; but in the leading case of *Mostyn v. Fabrigas*,^(c) where an action was brought against the Governor of Minorca for a similar trespass, the justification pleaded by the defendant, that he had acted under the law of the island and solely in his official capacity, was negatived by the jury, and the question of the extra-territorial operation of the local law

(a) *R. v. Lesley*, 29 L. J. M. C. 97; Bell, C. C. 220.

(b) L. R. 6 Q. B. 1; S. C. L. R. 4 Q. B. 225; see *The Halley*, L. R. 2 P. C. 193, referred to by Willea, J., in his judgment cited above.

(c) Cowp. 161; 1 Sm. L. C. 658.

did not therefore arise: It was, however, accorded an implied recognition by the Privy Council in *Hart v. Gumpach*.(a) In that case an action was brought, in the British Supreme Court for China and Japan, for false and fraudulent representations made by the defendant, occupying an official post in the service of the Emperor of China, to the principal of the Foreign Board at Peking, respecting the conduct of the plaintiff as a professor in the college established there, which led to his dismissal by that Board. In ordering a new trial on the ground of misdirection, it was said that, if it were shown that, by the law and customs of China, officers in the service of the Government were absolutely protected in making reports concerning their subordinates, and that it was against the policy of that Empire to allow them to be questioned by any Court, it might be proper to hold that it would be contrary to the comity of nations, and therefore contrary to public policy in the eyes of an English Court, to allow a British subject, who had voluntarily entered into the service of the Chinese Government, to maintain any action for the representations in question.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

*Torts—
Nature.*

These authorities seem, therefore, to show conclusively that if an alleged wrong is not actionable in the country where it is committed, no damage can be recovered for it in England; but a doubt has been raised as to the effect of the foreign law in those cases where the act is one for which criminal proceedings might have been taken in the courts of the country where it was committed, though no damages could have been there recovered. Wightman, J., intimated an opinion that if a trespass was not lawful or justifiable by the law of the country where it was committed, the mere fact that no remedy by recovery of damages was given by that law would not deprive the person aggrieved of his right to damages given by the English law, at any rate when the parties were British subjects.(b) No opinion on this point was, however, necessary for the decision of the case, as the pleadings

Criminal
offence by
lex loci, but
not actionable,
how far
actionable
elsewhere.

(a) L. R. 4 P. C. 439, 463.

(b) *Scott v. Seymour*, 1 H. & C. 219.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Nature.

were held not to contain any averment that damages might not be recovered by the foreign law for the alleged trespasses, and the rest of the Court guarded themselves from being supposed to assent to the *dictum* referred to. The later decisions which have been cited appear virtually to overrule it. The law of the place where an act is done defines its character altogether, and pronounces once for all whether it is wrongful and actionable, or legal and innocent. It may of course stamp it as wrongful, but not actionable, as in *Scott v. Seymour*. In that case the act is not a wrong to the individual, but only to the State. Consequently, the individual who considers himself aggrieved cannot claim damages for that which is no wrong to him, either in the country where the act is committed or in any other. To say that such a foreign law gives the person injured a criminal remedy, but not a civil one, and that the question is therefore one of procedure for the *lex fori*, is a mistake. The individual is given no remedy at all, since a criminal prosecution is not for the benefit of the individual, but of the State. He is given no remedy by the law of the place where the act is done, because that law regards him as having suffered no wrong, and the law of any tribunal in which he may afterwards sue should accept the decision of that which has natural and primary jurisdiction. In the words of Willes, J., the obligation is the principal to which the right of action in any court whatever is only accessory, and such accessory, according to the maxim of law, follows the principal, and must stand or fall therewith. "*Res, quæ accessorium locum obtinent, extinguuntur cum res principales peremptæ sunt.*" A right of action, whether it arise from contract governed by the law of the place, or from a wrong, is equally the creature of the law of the place, and subordinate thereto. The terms of the contract or the character of the subject-matter may show that the parties intended their bargain to be governed by some other law; but *primâ facie* it falls under the law of the place where it was made. And in like manner the

civil liability arising out of a wrong derives its birth from the law of the place, and its character is determined by that law. Therefore, an act committed abroad, if valid and unquestionable by the law of the place, cannot, so far as civil liability is concerned, be drawn in question elsewhere, unless by force of some distinct exceptional legislation, superadding a liability other than and beside that incident to the act itself.^(a) It cannot, however, be said that these *dicta* are necessarily to be understood as giving a sufficient answer to the opinion expressed by Wightman, J., in *Scott v. Seymour*,^(b) with respect to the case of an act illegal and criminal, but not *actionable*, by the law of the place where it was committed; and the law on this branch of the subject can scarcely be regarded as free from doubt.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Remedy.

When the act complained of takes place in a locality over which no municipal law extends, so as to be competent to decide its wrongful or innocent nature, it would seem ^{Tort within no municipal jurisdiction.} (c) that the *lex fori* must necessarily be followed, in the absence of any other with authority to speak. Thus, in an action by a submarine telegraph company against the foreign owners of a ship, for negligence and want of proper care in navigating their ship, whereby the cable of the 'plaintiffs, stretching from Dover to Calais, was damaged by the defendants' anchor, it was apparently assumed that the law of England was the proper measure of the negligence complained of, and of its actionable character, whether the injury was done to the cable within or without the limit of three miles from the English shore.^(d) It could not, of course, be contended that

(a) Per Willes, J., in *Phillips v. Eyre*, L. R. 6 Q. B. 1, 28.

(b) 1 H. & C. 219.

(c) Story suggests (§ 423) that, with respect to such torts as these, each nation would either apply its own law (*i.e.*, the *lex fori*), or would apply the same law that the nation to which the tortfeasor belonged would apply if the circumstances were reversed, following the rule of reciprocity. See *The Girolamo*, 3 Hagg. Ad. 169.

(d) *Submarine Telegraph Co. v. Dickson*, 15 C. B. N. S. 759. As to the three-mile zone, see *R. v. Keyn*, L. R. 2 Ex. D. 63, and the Territorial Waters Jurisdiction Act, 1878. In the case cited in the text it was alleged that the cable was lying in the high seas within the three-mile zone by virtue of a charter from the Crown.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Remedy.

the English Court had not jurisdiction to try an action for personal damages, whatever the locality of the *factum*, on the principles already explained; and it did not appear that any law could be invoked to measure a tort committed on the high seas, or (in this case) on the soil at the bottom of the high seas, but the law of the *forum* in which the action was brought. Torts in the nature of collisions between vessels on the high seas are within the original jurisdiction of the High Court of Admiralty, whatever the nationality of the parties, though it may be that the Court has a discretion whether or not it will interfere between litigants who are both the domiciled subjects of a foreign State; (a) and by modern statutes, the same Court has been given jurisdiction over any claim for damage done by any vessel, whether to another vessel or to person or property in some other form. (b) These latter torts also were originally within the jurisdiction of the Admiralty Court, according to Sir R. Phillimore in *The Sylph*, (c) in which case the statutory jurisdiction just referred to was held to include the case of damage inflicted by a steamer on the River Mersey upon a diver during his employment at the bottom. The same jurisdiction had been already applied to a cause of damage against a ship for injury to a breakwater. (d) It is perhaps superfluous to repeat that in such a case, if the breakwater injured were an integral part of the soil of a foreign State, the question of jurisdiction will arise in a more serious form. (e)

(iii.) *Measure of the Remedy*.—The general rule will be stated in its proper place, (f) that all questions of remedy or procedure belong to the *lex fori*; and the theory of the remedy available in case of tort is of course no exception to the general rule. “As to foreign laws,” says Willes, J.,

Remedies
governed by
lex fori.

(a) Per Sir R. Phillimore, in *The Mali Ivo*, L. R. 2 A. & E. 356.

(b) 24 Vict. c. 10, s. 7; 3 & 4 Vict. c. 65.

(c) L. R. 2 A. & E. 24. The law on this branch of the subject is exhaustively collected by Story in *De Lovio v. Boit*, 2 Gallison, 398.

(d) *The Uhla*, cited in note, L. R. 2 A. & E. 29.

(e) *The M. Moxham*, L. R. 1 P. D. 107.

(f) *Infra*, Chap. X.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

*Torts—
Remedy.*

"which affect the liability of parties in respect of bygone transactions, the law is clear that if the foreign law touches only the remedy or procedure for enforcing the obligation, as in the case of an ordinary statute of limitations, such law is no bar to an action in this country; but if the foreign law extinguishes the right, it is a bar in this country equally as if the extinguishment had been by a release of the party, or an Act of our own Legislature." (a) The question, in fact, is always whether the foreign law goes to the nature of the right, the essence of the obligation, or whether it only affects the manner in which the right is to be enforced, or the obligation dissolved. If the latter is its true construction, it has no operation except in its own tribunals; if the former, its decision must be respected by all Courts alike. In the words of Willes, J., which have been already cited, "the civil liability arising out of a wrong derives its birth from the law of the place, and its character is determined by that law. Therefore, an act committed abroad, if valid and unquestionable by the law of the place, cannot, so far as civil liability is concerned, be drawn in question elsewhere, unless by force of some distinct exceptional legislation, superadding a liability other than and beside that incident to the act itself." (b) But if the law of the place make the act in question an actionable wrong, it is actionable in English courts according to the English law and method of procedure. It can scarcely be said that the distinction between civil and criminal proceedings is one of remedy or procedure. An act which the law of the place forbids, and imposes a penalty on, is not necessarily an act for which the same law would give the aggrieved person an action for damages; and therefore, though it may be a wrong by the law of the place where it was done, it may not be an actionable wrong. The question whether, under such circumstances, it would be an actionable wrong in an English court arose in *Scott v.*

Lex fori
cannot create
liability.

(a) In *Phillips v. Eyre*, L. R. 6 Q. B. 29.

(b) *Ibid.*, p. 28.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Remedy.

Liability not
to be imposed
by *lex fori*.

Seymour; (a) but it was ultimately held to be unnecessary to decide it, inasmuch as the plea in dispute was construed not to amount to an averment that the wrong was not actionable at all in the civil courts of the country where it was committed. Wightman, J., expressed an opinion that, at any rate between British subjects, the fact that the local law gave no civil remedy for a wrong, which it nevertheless made criminal, would not prevent an action for damages from being maintained in England. "I find no authority for holding, even if the Neapolitan law gives no remedy for an assault and battery, however violent and unprovoked, by recovery of damages, that therefore a British subject is deprived of his right to damages given by the English law against another British subject." (b) The other judges, however, carefully guarded themselves against being supposed to concur in this view, and the distinction between British subjects and foreigners, at any rate, seems arbitrary and unfounded. (c) The reasonable construction of the recent authorities seems to point to an opposite conclusion, and it will probably be safer to say that the tortious or illegal nature of an act is to be decided once for all by the law of the place where it was committed. The remedy alone is a matter for the *lex fori* to regulate; i.e., assuming that an act is a tort, and therefore an actionable wrong, the *lex fori* must prescribe the mode in which the action is to be brought. There is at any rate no direct authority for allowing the *lex fori* any further effect, or permitting it to say, in any case, that an action shall be maintained which could not have been brought at all in the courts of the place where the act was done. Nor ought the *lex fori* to be allowed to determine the person on whom the liability to an action attaches, by whatever other law that may eventually be decided. In *General Steam Navigation Company v. Guillou* (d) the action was brought against the defendant as alleged owner of a certain vessel, for so negligently

(a) 1 H. & C. 219.

(c) Per Blackburn, J., *ibid.* 237.(b) *Ibid.*, p. 235.

(d) 11 M. & W. 877.

navigating her by his servants on the high seas as to come into collision with and sink a ship of the plaintiffs; and the defendant pleaded that the vessel was the property of a society or company established by French law, of which he was a shareholder and the acting director, and that by French law he, the defendant, was not responsible for or liable to be sued or impleaded individually, or in his own name or person, in respect of the causes of action in the declaration mentioned, but the said company alone, by their said style or title, or the master or person in command of the ship for the time being, was responsible for and liable to be sued and impleaded for the said causes of action. The Court of Exchequer were divided as to the true construction to be put on this plea, but they were agreed in expressing a strong opinion that if the plea was to be taken as averring that, by the law of France, the defendant was not liable for the acts of the master of the vessel, but that a body established by French law, and analogous to an English corporation, were the proprietors of the vessel, and alone liable for the acts of the master, who was their servant and not the servant of the individuals composing that body, then there was a good defence to the action. On the other hand, it was said that if the plea merely meant that the proper course of proceeding in a French court would be to sue the defendant jointly with the other shareholders of the company under the name of their association, it would undoubtedly be bad; for it was well established "that the forms of remedies and modes of proceeding were regulated solely by the law of the place where the action was instituted—the *lex fori*; and it was no objection to a suit instituted in proper form in England, that it would have been instituted in a different form in the court of the country where the cause of action arose, or to which the defendant belonged." (a) It appears quite clear, if the former of the two suggested constructions is adopted, that the *lex fori* could have had no title to interfere. The rule of

PART III.

ACTS.

CAP. IX.

*Torts—
Remedy.*

(a) 11 M. & W. p. 895.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Remedy.

maritime law adopted in England is no doubt that the owner is liable for the negligent navigation of the master, but the vessel in question was sailing under the flag of France, and owned wholly in that country. The question, therefore, involved in the plea, adopting the construction indicated, was simply of the ownership according to the law of France. If the defendant was not owner, the master was not his servant, but the servant of the French corporation, who alone were liable for his acts; and the law of the ship's flag was obviously the only one competent to determine the question.

Measure of
damages.

The *lex loci actus* is clearly the proper law to measure the amount of damages properly flowing from a tortious act. Thus it was decided in an old case that where there had been a tortious conversion of a ship abroad, interest was to be calculated, in assessing the damages, on the value of the ship at the rate of interest fixed by the foreign law.(a) The calculation of interest, on a breach of contract, is almost invariably determined, on a similar principle, by the law of the place where payment ought to have been made; the theory being that the plaintiff has a right to be put in the same position, as to all questions of interest and currency, as if payment had been made at the place and time stipulated for.(b) Thus where the action is against the acceptor of a bill, the law of the place where he agrees to pay prevails; and on the same principle it was held that where the claim was in fact against the drawers, who had drawn the bill in Canada, the Canadian law determined the interest.(c)

Torts on high
seas.

In pronouncing upon torts committed upon the high seas, the Court of Admiralty must of course be guided by maritime law without reference to the municipal law of either of the litigant parties; except where English statutes have laid down different principles for its guidance. The maritime law as administered in English

(a) *Ekins v. East India Co.*, 1 P. Wms. 395.

(b) *Suse v. Pomp*, 8 C. B. N. S. 538; *Cash v. Kennon*, 11 Ves. 314; *Scott v. Bevan*, 2 B. & Ad. 78; *Cockerell v. Barber*, 16 Ves. 461.

(c) *State Fire Insurance Co., In re*, 32 L. J. Ch. 300.

courts is in fact, according to the latest expressions of judicial opinion, English law ;(a) and in applying it to actions founded upon torts committed on the high seas, the law of the *forum* is, in a sense, adopted in the place of any with a better claim to be regarded as the *lex loci*.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Remedy.

Maritime law.

The true conception of this law is, more probably, that law which the English Court considers to be regarded by all maritime civilised nations—and itself—as the *lex loci*—the law operating upon the high seas, and bearing the same relation to that part of the surface of the earth that the municipal law of any independent State bears to the territory of that State. It is undoubtedly founded upon and has originated in the principles of law which have been adopted as common by the majority of maritime nations, and is therefore, in one sense, international. In another sense it is municipal ; that is, it is the law which the English Court of Admiralty applies to certain transactions happening out of British dominions, to which the ordinary statute law of the realm does not, in the absence of an expressed intention to that effect, apply. It is laid down by Blackstone (b) that “affairs of commerce are regulated by a law of their own, called the law merchant, or *lex mercatoria*, which all nations agree in and take notice of.” With respect to the liability of the owners of a vessel for damage done by her by collision on the high seas, it is clear that by this law, apart from the effect of English statutes, the liability went to the full extent of the tort, nor was any limit imposed on the duty of making compensation ;(c) and this is, of course, also the rule of the English Common Law. By the statute 53 Geo. III.

c. 159, s. 1, it was, however, enacted that shipowners should not be liable for any damage occasioned by the ship beyond the value of the ship and freight.(d) The Merchant Shipping Act, 1862 (25 & 26 Vict. c. 63), s. 64, British Merchant Shipping Acts—limitation of liability by.

(a) See per Willes, J., in *Lloyd v. Guibert*, L. R. 1 Q. B. 125 ; *The Hamburg*, 2 Moo. P. C. N. S. 289 ; ante, p. 395.

(b) 1 Bl. Com. c. 7, p. 273 ; 4 Bl. Com. c. 5, p. 67.

(c) Per Sir J. Nicholl in *The Girolamo*, 3 Hagg. Adm. 186 ; see also *The Carl Johann*, cited 1 Hagg. Adm. 109.

(d) Re-enacted by 17 & 18 Vict. c. 104, s. 504.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Remedy.

adopted this principle by limiting the liability of the owners to an aggregate amount calculated in proportion to the ship's tonnage, and extended it in terms to the owners of foreign (a) as well as British ships. Under the previous statute it had been held that the limitation of liability applied only where both litigants were British, and that the English law could be invoked neither for or against either plaintiff or defendant in the English court where a foreign ship was concerned.(b) It must therefore be taken as having been decided that this municipal law limiting the liability of shipowners was not and is not a law regulating the remedy merely, with which the *lex fori* has alone to do. "Clearly," said Vice-Chancellor Page Wood in *Cope v. Doherty*, "an Act which limits the damages to which the shipowner is to be liable under circumstances like the present deals with the substance and not the form of the procedure. It in effect forms a contract that, whereas by the natural law the owner of the ship or property that has been injured would be entitled to damages to the full extent of the loss that he has sustained, all those persons upon whom the Legislature can impose such a contract, that is to say, all its own subjects, shall forego that which the natural law—the Common Law, as we should call it in England—would give them, and shall be entitled only to the amount of the value of the ship by which the injury has been inflicted, and of the freight due or to grow due in respect of such ship during

(a) Under s. 60 of the Merchant Shipping Amendment Act, 1862, whenever it is made to appear that the rules concerning the measurement of tonnage of merchant ships for the time being in force under the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854, have been adopted by the Government of any foreign country, and are in force in that country, it may be directed by Order in Council that the ships of such foreign country shall be deemed to be of the tonnage denoted in their certificate of registry or other national papers, and thereupon re-measurement in England shall not be necessary. It would appear that an Order in Council made under this section is not invalid because it appears on the face of it that the adoption of the English rules of measurement has not been absolute, if there has been a *substantial* compliance with the statute; but such an order, when made, does not make the foreign certificate *conclusive* evidence of tonnage, any more than an English certificate of registry would be: *The Franconia*, L. R. 3 P. D. 164.

(b) *Cope v. Doherty*, 4 K. & J. 367; *The Wild Banger*, 1 Lush. 553.

the voyage.”(a) It had been contended in argument in this case that, whether such a limitation of liability was a matter of remedy and procedure for the *lex fori* or not, the English rule could not be applied, because the proper construction of the statute (17 & 18 Vict. c. 104, s. 504) was that it did not intend to limit the liability of foreigners. So far, however, as the liability of a foreign shipowner is concerned, it is now unnecessary to discuss the former point, or to attempt any criticism of the “contract” which the statute was said by Lord Hatherley to impose upon British subjects, inasmuch as the later statutory provisions (b) expressly include the owners of foreign as well as British ships.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Remedy.

The state of the law, then, when this enactment was passed, was as follows:—No limitation of liability for torts was imposed upon shipowners by the general law maritime, and the English statutes which did impose such a limitation had been held only to apply to cases where both the plaintiff and defendant were British subjects—*i.e.*, in the case of a collision, where both the ships sailed under the British flag, on the ground that the full liability of foreign shipowners was not cut down by the English Merchant Shipping Acts, and that these Acts were not to be construed as depriving such foreign shipowners of their full natural rights against British or other shipowners

Torts on high
seas—limitation
of
liability for.

(a) *Cope v. Doherty*, 4 K. & J. 367, 384.

(b) S. 54 of the Merchant Shipping Acts Amendment Act, 1862 (25 & 26 Vict. c. 63), commences as follows:—“The owners of any ship, whether British or foreign, shall not, in cases where all or any of the following events occur without their actual fault or privity, that is to say,

“(3) Where any loss of life or personal injury is by reason of the improper navigation of such ship as aforesaid caused to any person carried in any other ship or boat:

“(4) Where any loss or damage is by reason of the improper navigation of such ship as aforesaid caused to any other ship or boat, or to any goods, merchandise, or other things whatsoever on board any other ship or boat;

“Be answerable in damages in respect of loss of life or personal injury, either alone or together with loss or damage to ship's boats, goods, merchandise, or other things, to an aggregate amount exceeding £15 for each ton of their ship's tonnage; nor in respect of loss or damage to ship's goods, merchandise, or other things, whether there be in addition loss of life or personal injury or not, to an aggregate amount exceeding £8 for each ton of the ship's tonnage.”

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

*Torts —
Remedy.*

without express words to that effect.(a) Then came the statute (25 & 26 Vict. c. 63, s. 104) which in terms limited the liability of foreign shipowners. The previous cases having been decided on the ground, amongst others, that the English statutes were not to be construed as limiting the *rights* of foreign shipowners against British subjects, because they had not limited their *liability* when the position was reversed, the question arose whether, now that the *liability* of foreign owners was limited in express terms, the *rights* of foreign owners—*i.e.*, the liabilities of British owners when sued by foreigners—were not to be limited in the same way. It was held in *The Amalia*,(b) by the Privy Council, confirming the judgment of Dr. Lushington, that they were to be so limited, the statute having now enabled an English Court to do reciprocal justice when it was sought to impose unlimited liability on a foreign ship. "If the statute in question," says Dr. Lushington, "gives the right of limited liability to the British shipowner and the foreign shipowner alike, if there be perfect reciprocity, then complete justice is done, and I have no longer to struggle against an interpretation producing injustice. In construing this section, therefore, I must look to see whether it purports to affect the owners of British ships and the owners of foreign ships; and if I find, from the words of the section and from the whole context and subject-matter, that it was the intention of the statute to make limited liability for both British and foreign ships, then I consider there is no serious objection to the British Parliament legislating for foreigners."(c)

The last clause from the above quotation from Dr. Lushington's judgment indicates the real nature of the controversy. It had been decided in the previous cases that a law which limited the liability of a tortfeasor was

(a) *Cope v. Doherty*, 2 K. & J. 367; *The Wild Ranger*, 1 Lush. 553; 32 L. J. Adm. 49.

(b) 1 Moo. P. C. N. S. 471. An elaborate criticism of this case, in the form of a memorial to the Board of Trade from the foreign owners, will be found in Wendt's *Maritime Legislation*, pp. 513-526, *sub nomine The Marie de Brabant*.

(c) 1 Moo. P. C. N. S. p. 475.

not a law relating to procedure (though it did undoubtedly directly affect the *remedy* available), and that it was not therefore applicable, in the character of the *lex fori*, to foreigners. It was, however, indisputable that it was competent to the English Legislature to direct its Courts to apply it to any or all of the causes that came before them, and thus to legislate for foreigners, so far as they were litigants before English tribunals. The only question was, how far the English Legislature had done so; and it had been held that the previous enactment (17 & 18 Vict. c. 104, s. 504) had, in fact, legislated for foreigners as well as British subjects in respect of collisions that took place within a distance of three miles from the British shores (a)—the limit to which the jurisdiction of an independent State claims by the law of nations to extend.(b) The construction put by the Privy Council in the case of *The Amalia* (c) upon the last statute (25 & 26 Vict. c. 63) is in effect that the English Legislature has now legislated for foreigners who are concerned in collisions on any part of the high seas, whenever the rights or liabilities of those foreigners come in question in an English court, so far as to limit their right to recover and their liability to pay damages by one and the same rule. It has been expressly decided that the law of their vessel's own flag cannot be pleaded by the defendants in an action (*in personam*) by British owners for damage by collision.(d) The law applicable is "the general maritime law as administered in England."(e)

It may here be added that the section (s. 503) in the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854, which immediately preceded the provision limiting the liability of shipowners in

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

*Torts—
Remedy.*

(a) *General Iron Screw Colliery Co. v. Schurmans*, 1 J. & H. 180; 29 L. J. Ch. 877; but see this case questioned in *The Sazonia*, 1 Lush. 412, 419, 421.

(b) See *R. v. Keyn*, L. R. 2 Ex. D. 63; the Territorial Waters Jurisdiction Act, 1878. (c) 1 Moo. P. C. N. S. 471.

(d) *The Leon*, 6 P. D. 148.

(e) As to this expression, see per Willes, J., in *Lloyd v. Guibert*, L. R. 1 Q. B. 115, 123, 125; per Brett, L.J., in *The Gaetano*, 7 P. D. 137, and *ante*, p. 407.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Remedy.Merchant
Shipping Acts
—rules of
navigation.

case of collision, and conferred an absolute protection on shipowners in the case of damage done to cargo by fire, or of loss of precious metals and stones by theft, where the nature and value of such articles had not been inserted in the bill of lading, was uniformly construed as applying only to British ships,^(a) and has not been extended, like s. 504, to foreign shipowners by any later enactment.

The provisions of the Merchant Shipping Acts which have just been considered relate strictly to the measure of the remedy, though, as has been already pointed out, it has been decided that they are not regulations of remedy or procedure in such a sense as to be applicable to foreigners simply in the character of the *lex fori*. Certain other cases, however, which were decided on the applicability to foreigners of the English statutory regulations concerning sailing and navigation, have in reality nothing to do with the remedy at all, though they are generally cited in connection with the questions considered above. Those regulations are, in fact, municipal laws intended to follow British subjects over any part of the high seas, and to govern their conduct *inter se*, so as to determine the tortious or innocent nature of the navigation of a British ship which results in collision. Accordingly, it seems to have been rightly decided that they are inapplicable whenever either of the parties to the collision was foreign; ^(b) and this although s. 298 of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854, provides that if it appears to the Court that the collision was occasioned by the breach of any of the statutory rules, the owner of the ship by which such a rule has been infringed shall not be entitled to recover any recompense whatever for any damage sustained by such ship in such collision, unless it is shown to the satisfaction of the Court that the circumstances of the case made a departure from the rule necessary. In *The Zollverein* it was alleged

(a) *MacLachlan on Shipping*, p. 113; *The General Screw Colliery Co. v. Schurmans*, 1 J. & H. 180; *Cope v. Doherty*, 4 K. & J. 367; *The Girolamo*, 3 Hagg. Adm. 187; *The Carl Johann*, cited 1 Hagg. Adm. 113.

(b) *The Dumfries*, Swab. 63; *The Zollverein*, Swab. 96; *The Sazonia*, 1 Lush. 412; 17 & 18 Vict. c. 104, ss. 295–298.

that the British vessel, which had been in collision with a Prussian brig, had violated s. 296 of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854, which imposed upon her a statutory duty of porting her helm in circumstances under which the general maritime law would not require it. It was held that the owners of the Prussian ship could not set up against the English vessel this breach of an English statute. Dr. Lushington, after quoting Story's *dictum* (a) that, with regard to the rights and merits involved in actions, the law of the place where they originated was to be followed, but the forms of remedies and the order of judicial proceedings were to be according to the *lex fori*, proceeded as follows:—"Now, does s. 296 relate to the merits and rights of the case, or to the remedy and order of judicial proceeding? . . . I am of opinion that, in its true meaning, s. 296 is wholly applicable to the merits of the case; it determines how vessels shall conduct themselves at the time of collision on the high seas; the Legislature of this country has no power to bind foreign vessels in such a condition. It is true that s. 298 relates to remedy, but the application of the section is entirely founded on and emanates from s. 296. Then comes the question, whether, in a trial of the merits of a collision, a foreigner may urge in his defence that the British vessel, though free by the law maritime, has violated her own municipal law, and so, being plaintiff, cannot recover? Reverse the position: suppose the foreigner plaintiff, and to have done his duty by the law maritime. I am clear that he must recover for the damage done; if so, it is contrary to equity to say that the British shipowner, *in eadem conditione*, shall not recover against the foreigner. What right can the foreigner have to put forward British statute law, to which he is not amenable so far as the merits are concerned?" (b) In *The Saxonia* (c) the collision in question took place in the

(a) Story, Conflict of Laws, § 558.

(b) Similarly, a defendant in a personal action for damage by collision cannot set up the law of his own flag: *The Leon*, 6 P. D. 148.

(c) 1 Lush. 412. The case of *The General Iron Screw Colliery Co. v. Schurmans*, 1 J. & H. 180, must be regarded as questioned, if not overruled, by this decision.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

Torts—
Remedy.

Solent, within three miles of the British shore, and it was nevertheless held that the statute was inapplicable to foreign vessels even in those territorial waters, though little attention was paid in the judgment to the contention that the law of nations gave jurisdiction to every State within three miles from its coasts. It appears more than doubtful whether these provisions of the Merchant Shipping Act are applicable to foreign vessels on the Thames or other English tidal river, though a custom of navigation which has grown up there in consequence of the statute is no doubt binding upon them.(a)

SUMMARY.

TORTS.

p. 475. (i.) *Jurisdiction as to Torts.*—An English Court has jurisdiction to try actions based on torts to the person, or to movable personal property, wherever those torts were committed.

p. 471. Torts to immovable property situate abroad were formerly excluded from English courts by the technical rules of *venue*.

Whether they were also excluded by any principle of international law, and whether, therefore, an English Court is still without jurisdiction to try actions based on such torts, has not been decided, and appears very doubtful.

p. 475. The Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty Division of the High Court of Justice has special jurisdiction, formerly the jurisdiction of the Admiralty, in respect of torts committed on the high seas.

p. 476. (ii.) *Measure of the Wrong done.*—When an action is brought in an English court on a tort committed abroad, the act complained of must be wrongful both by English law and by the law of the country where it was committed.

(Query, whether it must not only be wrongful, but also actionable, by the latter law?)

(a) *The Fyenoord*, Swab. 377; and see *The Milford*, *ibid.*, 367; *The Annapolis*, 1 Lush. 295, and cases cited in Maclachlan on Shipping, p. 268, n. 4.

Legislation in the country where the act was committed, purging the tort, though *ex post facto* and retrospective in its operation, will be a good answer to an action in an English court.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

If the place where the act complained of was committed is not under the domain of any special municipal law, the *lex fori* will be applied to test the tortious nature of the act.

p. 477.

p. 481.

The *lex fori* in English courts, with respect to wrongful collision on the high seas, is the general law maritime as administered in England.

But where both the parties to the collision are British subjects, the general law maritime is modified by the Merchant Shipping Acts.

pp. 487, 491.

(iii.) *Measure of the Remedy*.—The remedy in general depends, like other questions of procedure, upon the *lex fori*, the question whether the act is one which is entitled to a remedy at all being decided by the law of the place where it was committed.

(Query, how far an act criminal but not actionable by the law of the place where it was committed is actionable in England?)

The provisions of the English Merchant Shipping Act which limit the liability of the shipowners for damage done by the ship are not rules of remedy or procedure which apply universally in the right of the *lex fori*, but are applicable by express enactment to foreign ships, when their rights and liabilities with respect to collision on the high seas come in question in an English court.

p. 487.

The provisions of the English Merchant Shipping Acts which direct that redress shall not be given in cases of collision, where the rules of the same Acts as to navigation have not been complied with, are not rules of remedy or procedure, but tend to determine the tortious nature of the acts resulting in collision. They are not therefore applicable to collisions on the high seas, except between British vessels, or even to such collisions in British territorial waters.

p. 492.

PART III.
ACTS.

NOTE ON CRIMES.

CAP. IX.

*Crimes—
Jurisdiction.*

The subject of crimes does not, strictly speaking, fall within the limits of this work; but it appears convenient to state here the general rules of English law affecting criminal jurisdiction. It has been already incidentally stated that the English Admiralty has from time immemorial claimed jurisdiction in respect of crimes committed on board British ships on the high seas, including under that phrase all waters where great ships go and lie afloat, whether moored to the land or not. (a) And it makes no difference whether the offender be a member of the crew, or a stranger. (b) This jurisdiction is now transferred to and exercisable by the Central Criminal Court.

Territorial
waters.

With regard to acts of a criminal nature committed at sea not on board British ships, the Territorial Waters Jurisdiction Act, 1878 (41 & 42 Vict. c. 73), declares and enacts the principle that the British Crown has jurisdiction over the open seas "to such a distance as is necessary for the defence and security" of its dominions. Writers on public international law, following the maxim "*Terræ dominium finitur ubi finitur armorum vis*," have very generally adopted the three-mile limit. It is obvious that this limit, fixed when the range of heavy guns was much less than at the present day, is hardly proportionate to the extended resources of modern scientific warfare. The Territorial Waters Jurisdiction Act, however, though expressly providing that nothing in it shall be construed to be in derogation of any rightful jurisdiction of the Crown under the law of nations, adopts the limit of one marine league from low-water mark in order to define the phrase "territorial waters," and enacts that any offence committed within that line, whether by a subject or not, is an offence within the jurisdiction of the Admiral, although it may have been committed on board or by means of a foreign ship. By s. 3 of the same Act it is further enacted that persons who are not subjects of the British Crown shall not be proceeded against without the consent and certificate of one of her Majesty's principal Secretaries of State.

(a) *Vide ante*, p. 475, and cases cited in *Reg. v. Anderson* and *Reg. v. Carr*, *infra*.

(b) *Reg. v. Anderson*, 10 App. Cas. 59; *Reg. v. Carr*, 10 Q. B. D. 76.

This Act was passed in consequence, and in order to remedy the effects, of the decision of the majority of the judges in the case of *Reg. v. Keyn.*(a) In that case it was held, by seven judges to six, that there was no jurisdiction to proceed against a foreigner for manslaughter caused by negligent navigation of a foreign vessel within the three-mile limit; but "the opinion of the minority in *The Franconia Case* has been since not only enacted, but declared by Parliament to have been the law."(b) The case must therefore be taken as having been wrongly decided; but, as a storehouse of learning on the subject, it is still of the highest value.

PART III.
ACTS.
CAP. IX.

The limit of the jurisdiction of the Admiralty, however, and *a fortiori* the limit under the Territorial Waters Jurisdiction Act, becomes immaterial when the crime in question is committed by one of the crew of any British vessel. S. 267 of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854 (17 & 18 Vict. c. 104), enacts that "all offences against property or person committed in or at any place, either ashore or afloat, out of her Majesty's dominions by any master, seaman, or apprentice who, at the time when the offence is committed or within three months previously, has been employed in any British ship, shall be deemed to be offences of the same nature respectively, and be liable to the same punishments respectively, and be inquired of, heard, tried, determined, and adjudged in the same manner and by the same Courts and in the same places, as if such offences had been committed within the jurisdiction of the Admiralty of England," and provision is there made for the necessary procedure and expenses. S. 21 of the amending Act of 1855 (18 & 19 Vict. c. 91) enacts that "if any person, being a British subject, charged with having committed any crime or offence on board any British ship on the high seas, or in any foreign port or harbour; or if any person, not being a British subject, charged with having committed any crime or offence on board any British ship on the high seas, is proved within the jurisdiction of any Court of justice in her Majesty's dominions which would have had cognizance of such crimes or offences if committed within the limits of its ordinary jurisdiction," such Court shall have

(a) *The Franconia Case*, 2 Ex. D. 63.

(b) Per Lord Coleridge, C.J., in *Reg. v. Dudley*, 14 Q. B. D. 273; 54 L. J. M. C. at p. 34.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

30 & 31 Vict.
c. 124, s. 11.

power to hear and try the case as if such crime or offence had been committed within such limits. And s. 11 of the amending Act of 1867 (30 & 31 Vict. c. 124) enacts that "if any British subject commits any crime or offence on board any British ship or on board any foreign ship to which he does not belong, any Court of justice in her Majesty's dominions which would have had cognizance of such crime or offence if committed on board a British ship within the limits of the ordinary jurisdiction of such Court shall have jurisdiction to hear and determine the case as if such crime or offence had been committed as last aforesaid."

The effect of these sections seems to be that, whereas by the Common Law offences committed by any person on board British ships on the high seas are cognizable, jurisdiction is also assumed over the crews of British ships committing offences abroad, though not on board their vessels, and is further retained over them for a period of three months after they have ceased to be employed as members of such crews. Moreover, with respect to the Common Law jurisdiction as to offences committed on board British ships, the jurisdiction can be exercised by any (otherwise) competent Court in her Majesty's dominions (except in the case of a crime committed on board a British ship in a foreign port or harbour by a non-British subject, when the Central Criminal Court would alone have jurisdiction, as in *Reg. v. Carr*). And in the exceptional case of an offence by a British subject on board a foreign ship to which he does not belong, the same general jurisdiction to any British Court is given.

Murder and
manslaughter
by subjects—
24 & 25 Vict.
c. 100, ss. 9, 10.

In addition to these provisions with reference to offences committed by the crews of or on board vessels, jurisdiction is specially assumed over all British subjects committing the crimes of murder or manslaughter on land out of British dominions, by the statute 24 & 25 Vict. c. 100, s. 9; and it is enacted that such offences may be dealt with and punished in any county or place in England or Ireland in which the person charged shall be apprehended or be in custody, in the same manner as if the offence had been actually committed in such county or place. S. 10 of the same Act provides for the case of homicide resulting from a blow or hurt inflicted in England or Ireland where the actual death takes place elsewhere. The converse case of a death in England

from a blow or hurt inflicted elsewhere is similarly provided for.

PART III.
ACTS.

CAP. IX.

The offence of bigamy is another crime which English law assumes jurisdiction to deal with by virtue of its right to control the person, wherever the actual ceremony constituting the second marriage may have taken place. S. 57 of the Act just referred to enacts that a second marriage during the life of the former husband or wife shall be a felony, whether the second marriage shall have taken place in England, or Ireland, or elsewhere; and may be dealt with and punished in any county or place where the offender may be apprehended or be in custody. The proviso to the section, however, confines its operation, in cases where the second marriage has been contracted abroad, to British subjects.

Bigamy—
24 & 25 Vict.
c. 100, s. 57.

The principle on which these statutes rest is of course that the Crown has the right to control and punish its own subjects without reference to local jurisdiction or rules of *venue*. By the English Common Law, a crime or offence is a wrongful act "against the peace" of the Sovereign; which implies that it must have been committed within the territorial dominions, for which "the King's peace" is a metaphorical synonym. The extended nature of the British empire has rendered it necessary to pass a number of Acts generally spoken of as the Foreign Jurisdiction Acts, 1843-1878, empowering Orders in Council to be made for different portions of the empire, many of which contain criminal provisions.^(a) There are also some miscellaneous statutes the subject-matter of which necessarily implies an extension of criminal jurisdiction. The chief of these are the Fugitive Offenders Act, 1881 (44 & 45 Vict. c. 69), the Foreign Deserters Act, 1852 (15 & 16 Vict. c. 26), the Slave Trade Acts, and the Foreign Enlistment Act, 1870 (33 & 34 Vict. c. 90). Subject to these and kindred exceptions, the limits of "the King's peace" may be regarded as defining the ordinary rule.

(a) The chief places for which such Orders in Council have been made, regulating either imperial or consular jurisdiction, are China and Japan (1881), Ottoman Empire (1882), Tunis (jurisdiction abandoned 1884), Siam (1884), West Africa (1885), Zanzibar (1884), Gibraltar (1884), China, Japan, and Corea (1886), Cyprus (1886), Gold Coast (1888), Lagos (1887), Siam (1886, 1887), and Zanzibar (1888). These Orders will be found in full in the *London Gazette* for the year named in each case. See also the index to the *London Gazette* for 1830-1883.

Part IV.—PROCEDURE.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

CHAPTER X.

PROCEDURE GENERALLY, AND EVIDENCE.

No principle of private international law is more certain in itself than the rule that the forms of remedies and modes of proceeding are regulated solely by the law of the place where the action is brought.(a) The only difficulty in the application of the general rule is to decide where formalities end and essentials begin. A law which will allow a remedy to be obtained only in a particular manner, or which imposes an impossible formal condition upon the only mode of procedure applicable to the case, does in effect, though indirectly, govern the right of action itself. A striking illustration of this is seen in the application of the Statute of Frauds to all contracts sued on in an English court. It is a general principle that all questions relating to the admissibility and effect of evidence depend upon the *lex fori*, as matters of procedure;(b) and the Statute of Frauds, which requires that certain contracts shall be evidenced by writing to support an action upon them, has been held to come within this rule.(c) The result is, of course, to render a contract which may have been perfectly good according to the law of the place where it was made or was to be performed, practically invalid in an English court. The vexed question of the

(a) *Don v. Lippman*, 5 Cl. & F. 1, 13; *British Linen Co. v. Drummond*, 10 B. & C. 903; *De la Vega v. Vianna*, 1 B. & Ad. 284; *Huber v. Steiner*, 2 Scott, 304; *Ferguson v. Fyffe*, 8 Cl. & F. 121; *General Steam Navigation Co. v. Guillou*, 11 M. & W. 277.

(b) *Bain v. Whitehaven, &c., Ry. Co.*, 3 H. L. C. 1.

(c) *Lerouz v. Brown*, 12 C. B. 801; *Acebal v. Levy*, 10 Bing. 376; *ante*, p. 354.

applicability of the English Statute of Limitations to an action brought on a foreign contract affords another example of the difficulty referred to. The right of action, so far as an English Court is concerned, is practically extinguished by an enactment which after a certain time prevents its enforcement; but this incidental effect of a law which professes merely to prescribe the terms and mode of the remedy does not prevent the *lex fori* from exerting its full operation.

The shortest way of stating the general rule is, that the remedy is to be enforced according to the *lex fori*.^(a) It is perhaps scarcely correct to say that the parties must be taken to have contemplated the possibility of enforcing the obligation existing between them in any country, a fiction which would obviously be altogether incapable of application to actions based on torts; but it is at any rate clear that the parties who have recourse to a tribunal to enforce any obligation, whether arising from tort or contract, must take the law which regulates the remedy they are seeking as they find it. The subject of procedure, understood by procedure the process by which a remedy is to be obtained, includes the determination of the following elements:—(i.) the name in which and against which the action is to be brought; (ii.) the time within which it must be brought; (iii.) mode of suing and enforcing process; (iv.) the evidence admissible and necessary to support an action; (v.) the recognition and enforcement of foreign judgments. It will be convenient to consider how far the *lex fori* is supreme with respect to each of these subdivisions.

(i.) *Parties to the Action*.—(a) *Name in which it must be brought*.—It is said by Story, that it has been held that the inquiry, in whose name the action is to be brought, belongs not so much to the right and merit of the claim, as to the form of the remedy.^(b) So far as it belongs to the form of the remedy alone, and does not alter the

(a) Per Lord Brougham in *Don v. Lippman*, 5 Cl. & F. 1, 13.

(b) Story, *Conflict of Laws*, § 565.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Parties.

ultimate direction in which the benefit of the remedy is to flow, the *lex fori* has been held entitled to control it. Thus, before the adoption by the Judicature Acts of the equitable rule as to the assignment of a *chose in action*, it was held that the assignee of a *chose in action* could not sue in England on it in his own name, although the assignment might have been made in a country where its validity was recognised by the law.^(a) The point did not exactly arise in *Trimbey v. Vignier* ^(b) and the cognate cases, in which the question has been as to the law which was to govern the sufficiency of the assignment, the assignee, if the assignment was valid by the proper law, being admittedly entitled to sue in his own name by the *lex fori* and the *lex contractus* alike. There are nevertheless expressions in the judgment in *Trimbey v. Vignier* which throw some doubt on the theory that the name in which the action is to be brought is a matter for the *lex fori* to determine at all. There is, no doubt, considerable difficulty in distinguishing the name in which the action is to be brought from the title on which it depends; ^(c) the latter belonging to the province, not of the *lex fori*, but of the law which created it. Thus it has been pointed out with regard to bills of exchange and promissory notes, that their assignability, upon which the right of the holder to sue in his own name depends, must be measured by the law which governs the nature and extent of the obligation of the contract, ^(d) and every promise or undertaking must be regarded as having the same inherent force. Consequently, if a *chose in action* is in its inception assignable, and has been rightly assigned, the assignee's title will be acknowledged as complete without reference to the *lex fori* in all courts. ^(e) It has been similarly shown that

^(a) *Wolff v. Oxholme*, 6 M. & S. 92, 99; *Jeffery v. M. Taggart*, *ibid.*, 126; *Innes v. Dunlop*, 8 T. R. 595; *Folliott v. Ogden*, 1 H. Bl. 135.

^(b) 1 Bing. N. C. 151; *Bradlaugh v. De Rin*, L. R. 5 C. P. 473; *Lebel v. Tucker*, L. R. 3 Q. B. 77; *ante*, p. 430.

^(c) *Westlake*, § 409.

^(d) *Ante*, pp. 430-441.

^(e) *Bradlaugh v. De Rin*, L. R. 5 C. P. 473; *Lebel v. Tucker*, L. R. 3 Q. B. 77; *Trimbey v. Vignier*, 1 Bing. N. C. 151; *O'Callaghan v. Thomond*, 3 Taunt. 81; *Innes v. Dunlop*, 8 T. R. 595; *De la Chaumette v. Bank of England*, 2 B. & Ad. 385.

the title conferred on the assignees by a foreign bankruptcy assignment is accorded a like recognition in an English court.(a) And where two out of three syndics of a French bankrupt sued in England on a *chose in action* of the bankrupt without joining the third, it was held that they were justified in doing so by proof that the French law would have allowed the same to be done. "The property in the effects of the bankrupt," said Parke, B., "does not appear to be absolutely transferred to these syndics in the way that those of a bankrupt are in this country; but that the syndics act as mandatories or agents for the creditors, the whole three, or any two or one of them, having the power to sue for and recover the debts in their own names. This is a peculiar right of action created by the law of that country, and we think it may be by the comity of nations enforced in this, as much as the right of foreign assignees or curators, or foreign corporations, appointed or created in a different way from that which the law of this country requires."(b) There can be no doubt that this is a strong authority against regarding the determination of the name in which an action is to be brought as one of procedure at all, and that it is difficult in the face of such a decision to distinguish any such question from the general one of title, on which the *lex fori* has no claim to make itself heard.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Parties.

Foreign
assignees.

The title of an administrator or executor under a foreign grant to enforce the *choses in action* of the deceased in England is not recognised, as has been already said,(c) until administration is taken out here. This is, however, for a different reason. A foreign administration is not regarded as transferring or assigning any movable property except that actually situate within the jurisdiction of the law which grants it, and a foreign administrator who has

Foreign
administrators.(a) *Ante*, pp. 308, 503.(b) *Alison v. Furnival*, 1 C. M. & R. 277, 296; 4 Tyrwhitt, 751.(c) *Ante*, p. 269. But the administrator of the *forum* of the domicile can recover from a local or limited administrator any balance in his hands of the personal estate collected by him: *Eames v. Hacon*, 16 Ch. D. 407; S. C. on appeal, 18 Ch. D. 347; *De la Viesca v. Lubbock*, 10 Sim. 629; *Enohin v. Wyllie*, 10 H. L. C. 1; *ante*, p. 270.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Parties.

Married
woman.

not obtained an English grant has consequently no title at all to the *choses in action* of the deceased here. An assignment *inter vivos*, on the contrary, is intended to operate all the world over, and claims universal recognition on that footing; while an assignment by law or bankruptcy is acknowledged by international comity, as has been already pointed out, as having a similar effect. The right of a husband to sue in his wife's name with respect to the movables acquired by him through her is referred, upon the same principle, to the law of the matrimonial domicile; to which the intention of the parties must also be presumed to have been directed.(a) So when a husband and wife are domiciled in a country where the wife has no equity to a settlement, an English Court will order payment of the wife's legacy to an assignee of the husband (b)—a case not strictly pertinent to the present subject, but which shows in a strong light the inability of the *lex fori* to interfere with any question of title. So it appears that a *feme covert*, who carries on business in a country where the law permits her to do so as a sole trader, may sue here in respect of transactions entered into in that character; but that husband and wife cannot sue here as partners in trade, though that trade was carried on under a law which recognised such partnership.(c) The distinction is perhaps a shadowy one, but seems to be founded on the view that the right of a *feme covert* to acquire property and sue for it in any court must be decided by the law under which she lives, but that her right to sue jointly with her husband as his partner involves a question of the misjoinder of parties, which is properly a matter of procedure for the *lex fori*. It may be remarked, in reference to this case, that the custom of the City of London which allows a *feme covert* to carry on business as a sole trader in the City does not authorise her to sue as such trader in any but the City of London

(a) *Dues v. Smith*, Jacob, 544; *Sawyer v. Shute*, 1 Aust. 63; *Campbell v. French*, 3 Ves. 321.

(b) *McCormick v. Garnett*, 5 De G. M. & G. 278.

(c) *Cosio v. De Bernales*, 1 C. & P. 266; Ry. & Moo. 102.

courts ;(a) so that it does not really purport to give her a title for general purposes at all.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Parties.

(b) *Name against which the Action is to be brought.*—It is quite clear that no person can be made liable by the *lex fori*, as an incident of procedure, who would not have been exposed to liability by the proper law to govern the act or contract in respect of which he is sued, and his connection with it. Thus in *General Steam Navigation Company v. Guillou*,(b) the defendant, who was sued for injury done to the plaintiff's ship on the high seas by a vessel of which he was alleged to be the owner, pleaded that the real owners of the vessel which caused the collision were a French society or company, of which he was a shareholder and acting director, and that, by the law of France, the defendant was not responsible for or liable to be sued or impleaded individually, or in his own name or person, in respect of the causes of action alleged, but that the said company alone, by their said style or title, were responsible for and liable to be sued and impleaded for the said causes of action. It is not easy to see how this plea could have been construed as anything but a denial that the defendant was personally or individually liable at all by French law, although the Court of Exchequer were equally divided on this question ; but the true principle by which such cases are to be determined is no doubt correctly indicated in the judgment. "If the defendant," said Parke, B., "was not liable for the acts of the master by that law which is to govern the case, he has a good defence to the action. For the defendant, it is contended that the plea means to aver that by the law of France he was not liable for those acts, but that a body established by the French law, and analogous to an English corporation, were the proprietors of the vessel, and alone liable for the acts of the master. . . . If such be the true construction of the plea, we are all strongly inclined to think that there is a good defence to the action. On the

Liability to be
sued.

(a) *Beard v. Webb*, 2 B. & P. 98 ; 1 C. & P. 267, n.

(b) 11 M. & W. 877.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Parties.

other hand, the plaintiff contends that the plea only means that in the French court the mode of proceeding would be to sue the defendant jointly with the other shareholders of the company under the name of their association; and if this be the true construction of the plea, we all concur in the opinion that the plea is bad; for it is well established that the forms of remedies and modes of proceeding are regulated solely by the law of the place where the action is instituted—the *lex fori*; and it is no objection to a suit instituted in proper form here, that it would have been instituted in a different form in the court of the country where the cause of action arose, or to which the defendant belongs.”(a) The distinction intended appears to be, that the defendant, if not personally liable at all by the French law, could not be made so by the *lex fori*; but that if in France he was under a joint personal liability with the other members of the association, the fact that they were not joined as defendants would be immaterial, as relating to a question of procedure; and this was the principle afterwards adopted in *Bullock v. Caird* (b) by the Court of Queen’s Bench. In that case the action was brought against a single defendant, for a breach of an agreement entered into between the plaintiffs and C. & Co.; and the defendant pleaded that there was a trading partnership or firm, domiciled and carrying on business in Scotland by the name of C. & Co., of which he was a member; that, by the Scotch law, the firm was a distinct person from any or the whole of the individual members, and was capable of maintaining the relation of debtor and creditor separate and distinct from the obligations of the partners as individuals, and of holding property, and of suing and being sued as a separate person by the name of C. & Co.; that, by the law of Scotland, the defendant, as a partner in the firm, was liable to the plaintiffs for the satisfaction of any judgment which might be obtained against the firm or the whole of the individual members

(a) *General Steam Navigation Co. v. Guillon*, 11 M. & W. 877, 895.

(b) L. R. 10 Q. B. 276.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Parties.

Local provisions directory
as to procedure.

jointly for any breaches of the agreement; and that it was a condition precedent to any individual liability attaching to the defendant, as an individual member of the firm in respect of the agreement, that the firm, as such person, or the whole individual partners jointly, should first have been sued, and that judgment should have been recovered against the firm or the whole of the partners jointly; and that the plaintiffs had not sued the firm or the whole of the partners jointly, or recovered judgment against it or them. It was held, on demurrer, that all the matters stated in the plea were mere matters of procedure, and that the plea was bad, Blackburn, J., saying that the non-joinder of the other members of the firm might be a bar to an action in Scotland, but could only amount in England to a plea in abatement.(a) So where a colonial statute gave a mode of proceeding against a colonial banking company by suing their chairman as nominal defendant, and enforcing the judgment against the property of the members, and judgment had in fact been recovered against the chairman under this provision, it was held that a member of the banking company might nevertheless be sued individually in England.(b) It is true that it was said in the judgment that the colonial statute was merely cumulative, and left all the previous rights and liabilities of the parties untouched; but it is submitted that the decision would have been the same even if the colonial statute had made the recovery of judgment against the chairman a necessary preliminary to fixing any liability on the individual members, such a provision relating merely to procedure, and only indicating the proper mode of bringing home the liability, instead of taking it away altogether. As Lord Campbell expressed it, such an act imposed no new liability, but only regulated the mode in which the existing liability should be judicially constituted.(c) Such provisions clearly do not affect the right of the creditor to pursue his remedy here in the

(a) *Bullock v. Caird*, L. R. 10 Q. B. 278.

(b) *Bank of Australasia v. Harding*, 9 C. B. 661; 19 L. J. C. P. 345.

(c) *Bank of Australasia v. Nias*, 16 Q. B. 717, 734.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Parties.

manner provided by the law of this country; nor will any further special enactment, regulating the manner and conditions of executing a judgment, so obtained against such a nominal defendant, upon the property of the members of the company, have any wider operation beyond the tribunals to which it is immediately addressed.(a)

(ii.) *Time within which the Action must be brought.*—Statutes of limitation may be regarded from a double point of view; either as extinguishing and discharging the right of action altogether, or as merely suspending and denying a remedy. Nor has any branch of private international law given rise to greater discussion than the attempt to decide which is in truth their proper character; whether they are, in short, laws which govern the inherent liability of the obligation, or rules of procedure dictated by the *lex fori*, and binding in that *forum* alone. They may, in fact, be either. It is competent to any Legislature to enact that rights of action, not put in force within a certain time, shall be absolutely extinguished; and such an enactment will have a right to claim recognition in any tribunal, whenever a contract made with reference to it as the dominant law (b) shall come in question. "I should be much inclined to hold," says Cockburn, C.J., "that when by the law of the place of contract an action on the contract must be brought within a limited time, the contract ought to be interpreted to mean, 'I will pay on a given day, or within such time as the law of the place of contract can force me to pay.'"(c) That this *dictum* does not express the English law, according to the current of authority, is admitted by the learned judge whose opinion is quoted in the same judgment, but if for the last phrase were substituted the words "within such time as the law of the place of contract provides that any obligation shall remain valid and unextinguished," its authority would be incontrovertible. It has been repeatedly decided that the English law of limitations with

(a) *Kelsall v. Marshall*, 16 Q. B. 241.(c) *Harris v. Quine*, L. R. 4 Q. B. 653.(b) *Ante*, p. 389.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Limitations.

Statute of
Limitations.

regard to obligations and movables generally, does not go to this extent, but merely fixes a limit within which, *in an English court*, the action must be brought; and that foreign statutes of limitation, framed in similar terms, have no larger effect. (a) The English statute with regard to real property (3 & 4 Will. IV. c. 27), on the other hand, does not merely bar the remedy, but extinguishes the right. The *lex situs*, in fact, as to prescription with regard to immovables, exacts universal recognition. (b)

It cannot be denied that this interpretation of the English statutes of limitation has met with severe and pertinacious criticism; and Westlake, in particular, attacked the cases which had been decided when he wrote, and the unhesitating expression of the opinion of Story on the subject, with considerable energy. He considered that "the opinion which refers the question to the *lex fori*, as one of procedure, rests upon two fallacies." The first of these alleged fallacies is the contention that the breach of the contract cannot have been in the mind of the contracting parties, and that the limitation, therefore, is not of the nature of the contract; a fallacy, which in his opinion is due to a confusion between the interpretation of the contract and the operation on it of the *lex loci contractus*. It is, however, now settled that the operation of the *lex loci* on the contract, no less than the interpretation of the contract itself, is entirely dependent upon the intention of the parties. (c) The *lex loci* cannot, therefore, operate upon the contract at all except so far as it was intended to do so by the parties when they entered into the contract; and the argument that what they did not contemplate or intend ought not to be governed by that law, is certainly entitled to some consideration. The

(a) *Harris v. Quine*, L. R. 4 Q. B. 653; 38 L. J. Q. B. 331; *Pardo v. Bingham*, L. R. 4 Ch. 735; 39 L. J. Ch. 170; *Ruckmaboye v. Mottichund*, 8 Moo. P. C. 36; *Lopez v. Burslem*, 4 Moo. P. C. 300; *British Linen Co. v. Drummond*, 10 B. & C. 903; *Huber v. Steiner*, 2 Bing. N. C. 202; 2 C. B. 304; Chitty on Contracts, 10th ed. p. 741.

(b) *Per Lush, J.*, L. R. 4 Q. B. 658; *Pitt v. Dacre*, L. R. 3 Ch. D. 295.

(c) *Lloyd v. Guibert*, L. R. 1 Q. B. 115; *ante*, p. 393; and cases there cited.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Limitations.

second alleged fallacy is the distinction, drawn by Lord Brougham in *Don v. Lippman*,^(a) by which most of the subsequent decisions have been swayed, that the debt may be left subsisting and owing, though the remedy is denied. In Westlake's opinion, there is little or no meaning in saying that a debt subsists which cannot be recovered. The statutes of limitation referred to, of the same class as the English statute with regard to personal obligations, do not, however, say this. They simply say that the debt shall not be recovered in the courts over which they claim authority. The creditor may recover his debt in any other court, if the procedure of that other court allows him. There are, indeed, other ways in which a debt may be said to subsist, though it cannot be put in suit. It may, for example, so subsist as to preserve a lien on the goods of the debtor until it is satisfied,^(b) or so as to cause the right of action to revive by a subsequent promise. A good illustration may be found in the case of *In re Bowes, Strathmore v. Vane*,^(c) where a creditor in an administration suit was allowed to retain, without bringing into hotchpot, the proceeds of a foreign attachment on foreign assets for another debt, being a debt barred by the English Statute of Limitations, but not by the foreign law. It is obvious that for this purpose the English Court must have recognised the existence of the debt in question at a time when its own Statute of Limitations could have prevented its enforcement. It is unnecessary, however, to have recourse to such considerations, inasmuch as the distinct ground upon which the English and certain other statutes of limitation have been held to refer to procedure has been that they do not intend or purport to forbid the cause of action from being put in force, after the specified term, in any courts except their own. They are commands addressed to their own tribunals. Did they purport to be more than this they would cease to be

^(a) 5 Cl. & F. 1, 16.^(b) *Spears v. Hartley*, 3 Esp. 81, 82; *Higgins v. Scott*, 2 B. & Ad. 413.^(c) W. N. 1889, p. 53.

rules of procedure at all, and would absolutely extinguish such rights of action as properly came within their jurisdiction.(a)

The cases,(b) therefore, which appeared to Westlake in 1858 insufficient to do more than leave "the whole subject still open for the higher English tribunals," have since received repeated sanction; and it is now established beyond doubt that a law which simply prescribes the time within which a *chose in action* must be put in force relates to procedure alone, and has no validity except in the tribunals to which it belongs and is addressed.(c)

And in those tribunals it applies to all contracts, wherever made; and to all parties, whatever their nationality or domicile. Thus, in *Pardo v. Bingham* the English Statute of Limitations was held to apply, though the debt was contracted in Venezuela, where the debtor and creditor were both resident at the time and afterwards. "A certain period is fixed by the statute," said Lord Hatherley, "which binds everybody who comes to sue before this *forum*."(d) And where a statute (5 Geo. IV. c. 113, s. 29) provided that no appeal should be allowed from any sentence of any Court of Admiralty unless certain preliminary steps were taken within a given time, it was held that the enactment applied to foreigners as well as to British subjects. It was said, in the judgment, that although the British Parliament had no general power to legislate for foreigners out of the dominions and beyond the jurisdiction of the Crown, yet it could by statute fix a time within which application must be made for redress to the tribunals over which it had authority; and that this was matter of procedure, which was a law of the *forum*, and bound in that *forum* all mankind, whether

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.
CAP. X.
Limitations.

Foreigners
controlled by
lex fori as to
limitations.

(a) See Westlake, Priv. Int. Law, §§ 250-253; Story, Conflict of Laws, § 576, *sq.*

(b) *British Linen Co. v. Drummond*, 10 B. & C. 903; *Huber v. Steiner*, 2 Bing. N. C. 202; *Don v. Lippman*, 5 Cl. & F. 1.

(c) *Harris v. Quine*, L. R. 4 Q. B. 653; 38 L. J. Q. B. 331; *Pardo v. Bingham*, L. R. 4 Ch. 735; 39 L. J. Ch. 170; *Pitt v. Dacre*, L. R. 3 Ch. D. 295.

(d) *Pardo v. Bingham*, L. R. 4 Ch. 735.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Limitations.

foreigners or subjects, plaintiffs or defendants, appellants or respondents.(a) So exclusively is such a law matter of procedure, that a foreign judgment declaring that a claim is barred by a local statute of limitations is no bar to an action in the tribunals of another State the laws of which fix a longer term of limitation of suit on the original cause of action.(b) In such a case, the maxim "*nemo bis debet vexari pro eadem causa*" does not apply, the plea upon which the foreign judgment has been given not going to the merits of the cause of action. It will be shown subsequently that this condition must be complied with, in order that a foreign judgment should be set up as a conclusive bar here.(c) The recent case of *In re Bowes, Strathmore v. Vane* (d) (cited *suprà*), is a strong illustration of the principle. In that case an English Court recognised the existence of a debt, which was barred by its own Statute of Limitations, so far as to allow the creditor, who was proving against the same estate for another debt, to retain the proceeds of a foreign attachment for the statute-barred debt without bringing them into hotchpot.

It only remains, while on this subject, to advert to a distinction cited with approval from Story in *Huber v. Steiner*,(e) between cases where a foreign law of limitation is merely the *lex loci contractus*, and those in which the parties have resided within the jurisdiction of the law during the whole period, so that it has had full operation upon the case. It should, however, be remarked that Story adds the further condition that the law should be one which declares that the claim at the expiration of the statutory period shall become a nullity, and not merely that the remedy shall be barred. Unless such was its nature, it is clear that it would still remain a law of procedure only, and that the additional fact of the parties having resided within its jurisdiction would not give it greater strength

(a) *Lopez v. Burslem*, 4 Moo. P. C. 300.(b) *Harris v. Quine*, L. R. 4 Q. B. 653; 38 L. J. Q. B. 331; *Don v. Lippman*, 5 Cl. & F. 1.(c) *Garcias v. Ricardo*, 14 Sim. 265; 14 L. J. Ch. 339; *infra*, Chap. XI.

(d) W. N. 1889, p. 53.

(e) 2 Bing. N. C. 202.

or wider operation. No doubt this fact would be an additional reason for admitting the universal validity of the law, if it was a law like the English statute which limits suits relating to immovables (3 & 4 Will. IV. c. 27), which extinguished the right; but it has been already said that such a law is not one of procedure at all, and claims universal recognition without the aid of any additional considerations, such as that the parties have resided for the full period within its jurisdiction.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.
CAP. X.

Limitations.

(iii.) *Mode of Suing and Enforcing Process.*—No part of the subject is less involved with considerations of the proper respect to be paid to the law which created the right than this; and, accordingly, no part of it is to be referred with less hesitation to the *lex fori* for an authoritative decision. It is, indeed, almost unnecessary to multiply authorities for the proposition that the “forms of remedies and modes of proceeding” are regulated solely by the law of the place where the action is instituted; (a) but it may be more useful to illustrate it by citing a few examples of its application. How far it applies to the question of the reception of evidence, or of the sufficiency of evidence when received to support an action, will be considered subsequently; (b) and it has already been shown that the prescription of the time within which an action must be brought is properly regarded as coming under the same general rule. That all questions of priorities between creditors depend upon the *lex fori* was decided, as far as cases of bankruptcy are concerned, by *Ex parte Melbourn*, just cited; and the same rule has more than once been held to be applicable to administrations. (c) Not only the priority of a creditor, but in some cases his right to prove his debt at all, may in some instances be decided by the *lex fori*. The former

(a) *Ferguson v. Fyffe*, 8 Cl. & F. 121; *Trimbey v. Vignier*, 1 Bing. N. C. 151; *General Steam Navigation Co. v. Guillou*, 11 M. & W. 877; *De la Vega v. Vianna*, 1 B. & Ad. 284; *Pardo v. Bingham*, L. R. 6 Eq. 485; *Ex parte Melbourn*, L. R. 6 Ch. 64; 40 L. J. Bank. 65.

(b) *Infra*, p. 523.

(c) *Pardo v. Bingham*, L. R. 6 Eq. 485; *Cook v. Gregson*, 2 Drew. 286; *Preston v. Melville*, 8 Cl. & F. 1.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Suit.

rules of English bankruptcy law, for example, which exclude in certain cases a right of double proof against two firms to which the same individual or individuals belong, (a) have been held to apply to a creditor attempting to prove under an English bankruptcy, after proof under what was tantamount to a bankruptcy in the Brazils; (b) and the fact that in the case cited the bills which were the subject of the proof had been accepted in England, though mentioned by Turner, L.J., seems immaterial. So an execution creditor who attempts in a foreign court to attach and sell property of a bankrupt firm actually situate in the foreign jurisdiction, may be justified by the *lex fori* in doing so, although the English law would not have permitted it; and the assignees of one of the members of the firm, who has become bankrupt in England, cannot compel him by suit in England to refund what he has recovered. (c) It seems difficult, indeed, to suggest any true principle upon which such an interference with the operation of the *lex fori* and *situs* could be warranted, even if the partnership were domiciled and resident in England, and the attached property alone situate within the foreign jurisdiction; though any Court which can give the creditor his full distributive share of the whole partnership property, or withhold it from him, can no doubt practically obtain full recognition for its rules. (d) Thus, when a company has in this country been ordered to be wound up, judgment creditors who are in this country and have proved under the winding up will not be allowed to attach, or retain when attached, property in India belonging to the company. (e) The subject has already received some consideration. (f)

(a) But see now the Bankruptcy Act, 1883 (46 & 47 Vict. c. 52), s. 39, sched. II. (18), extending the provisions of 24 & 25 Vict. c. 134, s. 152.

(b) *Ex parte Goldsmid*, 1 De G. & J. 257, 285; *Goldsmid v. Cassinove*, 7 H. L. 785.

(c) *Brickwood v. Miller*, 3 Mer. 279; and see *Stein's Case*, 1 Rose. 462.

(d) *Barker v. Goodair*, 11 Ves. 78; *Dutton v. Morison*, 17 Ves. 201; 1 Rose. 213; *Sill v. Worswick*, 1 H. Bl. 665; *Hunter v. Potts*, 4 T. R. 182.

(e) *In re Oriental Steam Co., Ex parte Scinde Ry. Co.*, L. R. 9 Ch. 557.

(f) *Ante*, p. 307.

The rule that set-off, on the other hand, is a mere matter of procedure, not of the substance of the contract between the parties, and that it is consequently dependent on the *lex fori*, is not so clearly established. It is, however, difficult to see in what sense it can be said to be part of the original obligation, that the defendant in an action of contract should be able to defeat part of the claim against him by setting up a perfectly distinct claim of his own against the plaintiff. In such a case, each litigant, plaintiff and defendant, has, strictly speaking, a *chose in action* of his own; and a *chose in action* can of its own nature be enforced only by action. The law of some particular *forum* may and does allow the defendant to make a different use of his claim, by striking a balance between it and the claim of the plaintiff; but that appears to be a privilege conferred by the *lex fori*, and in no sense part of the contract. The express contract between the parties may, of course, provide that the claim of the plaintiff, when it arises, should be set against a specified demand of the defendant; but in such a case the defendant's plea is not really one of set-off, but of an express term of the original contract. The point was raised, though not directly decided, in *Macfarlane v. Norris*,^(a) where Cockburn, C.J., intimated that he was inclined to take the view indicated above, and this *dictum* has been since followed.^(b) The most recent American authorities are to the same effect.^(c) In *Allen v. Kemble*,^(d) which has been cited on the other side in support of the proposition that the right of set-off is really part of the original obligation, there was no conflict between the *lex fori* and the *lex loci contractus* at all; and the only question was whether the contract of the drawer of a bill of exchange was governed by the law of the place where the bill was drawn, or where it was payable.

It is plain, however, that the *lex fori* can never confer

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Suit.

Set-off.

(a) 2 B. & S. 783.

(b) *Meyer v. Dresser*, 33 L. J. C. P. 289.

(c) See Story, *Conflict of Laws*, § 575, and American cases there cited (7th ed.)

(d) 6 Moo. P. C. 314.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Suit.

Liability—not
created by
lex fori.

a right of action which had no existence by the law which was properly competent to create the obligation. Thus it has been already said that a tort, to be actionable, must be actionable by the law of the place where it was committed, as well as by the law of the tribunal.(a) Consequently, the better opinion would seem to be that an act which is a criminal offence, but not a personal tort, by the *lex loci*, cannot be the ground of an action here, though by the *lex fori* it might be both. It is true that Wightman, J., in *Scott v. Seymour*,(b) intimated an opinion that if a trespass was not lawful or justifiable by the law of the country where it was committed, the mere fact that no personal right to recover damages for it was given by that law would not deprive the person aggrieved of the right of action given to him by English law, at any rate when both the parties were British subjects. This *dictum*, however, was not assented to by the other members of the Court; and the fallacy involved in it has been already pointed out.(c) In strict accordance with the principle here advocated, it was said in an older case that no rule of procedure could avail to give a personal right of action against a contractor, where the *lex loci actus* recognised no right to enforce the obligation at all against the person of the party sued;(d) and though this case has been disapproved by later authorities,(e) the principle that the personal or real nature of the right must be determined once for all by the *lex loci* remains unassailed. The nature and extent of this principle will be better understood when the cases relating to process and execution have been considered.

Execution—
governed by
lex fori.

Process, or the mode and proceedings by which the judgment and decrees of any tribunal are enforced, similarly depends upon the law of that tribunal alone.(f) There may, however, be sometimes a difficulty in distin-

(a) *Ante*, p. 479.

(b) 1 H. & C. 219.

(c) *Ante*, p. 480.(d) *Melan v. Fitzjames*, 1 B. & P. 138.(e) *Imlay v. Ellesfen*, 2 East, 453.(f) *De la Vega v. Vianna*, 1 A. & Ad. 284; *Don v. Lippman*, 5 Cl. & F. 1; *Imlay v. Ellesfen*, 2 East, 453; *Bretillot v. Sandos*, 4 Scott, 201.

guishing the nature of the original liability on which the judgment is founded from the operation upon it of the law of a foreign Court as to execution. A man, for example, who contracts a debt in a country where imprisonment for debt is unknown, may argue with some plausibility that his contract never contemplated the alternative of personal confinement, by the threat of which the law of the country in which he is sued attempts to hold him to his bargain. From such a point of view, it would appear inequitable that he should be compelled to submit to the provisions of any law which he had not contemplated; but there is a fallacy involved in this aspect of the subject altogether. The natural incidents of the contract, foreseen or unforeseen, are properly the subjects of the intention of the parties; and in adjudicating upon them it is of the highest importance to determine what the contracting parties contemplated, or to what law they intended to refer. Breach, however, is not a natural incident of the contract, but its dissolution. An obligation, it is true, remains; but it is an obligation which arises, not out of the intention of the parties, but out of the refusal of one of them to carry that intention into effect.(a) Consequently, with the incidents of breach, and the remedies applicable to it, the intention of the parties can have nothing to do. The fallacy of supposing that those who contract undertake an alternative liability, to discharge their promise *or* to be compelled to do so by some particular law, within some particular time, or in some particular way, has already been shown in treating of statutes of limitation.(b) Persons who contract engage simply to perform their promise; and if they fail to carry out their undertaking, they must submit to the control of any law within the reach of which they happen to be when a remedy is sought. To break a contract is, in truth, an offence; or, if not a public offence, is at any rate a personal tort. There is no greater reason why a man who fails to fulfil a promise should be heard to object to any

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Process.

(a) *Don v. Lippman*, 5 Cl. & F. 1, 14.

(b) *Ante*, p. 508.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

*Process.**Enforcement
of personal
liability.*

law which properly asserts jurisdiction over him, than why a man who injures another by defamation or actual assault should do the same.

The sole question, therefore, which must in such cases be decided, is whether the contractor assumed, by his agreement, a personal liability or not. If he intended to bind his person for the fulfilment of his promise—and all personal undertakings must necessarily be taken, in the absence of anything to the contrary, to have that effect—then every tribunal under whose jurisdiction he may come will enforce that personal liability in its own way. If, on the contrary, his person, according to his intention and the competent *lex contractus*, was never bound at all, then no foreign law can impose a personal liability for the breach or non-fulfilment of what was never a personal undertaking.^(a) Thus in *Melan v. Fitzjames* the defendant was held to bail in England on an instrument entered into in France, by which his property only, and not his person, was according to the law of France made liable, and the Court of Common Pleas ordered the bail-bond to be delivered up and cancelled on the defendant entering a common appearance. "The defendant is held to bail," said Eyre, C.J., "on a contract made in France, the nature of which we must learn, not from the face of the instrument, but from evidence. If it appears that this contract creates no personal obligation, and that it could not be sued as such by the laws of France, there seems to be fair ground on which the Court may interpose to prevent a proceeding so oppressive as a personal arrest in a foreign country, at the commencement of a suit, in a case which, as far as we can judge at present, authorises no proceeding against the person in the country in which the transaction passed. If there could be none in France, in my opinion there can be none here. I cannot conceive that what is no personal obligation in the country in which it arises can ever be raised into a personal obligation by the laws

(a) *Melan v. Fitzjames*, 1 B. & P. 138; *Talleyrand v. Boulanger*, 3 Ves. 447; *De la Vega v. Vianna*, 1 B. & Ad. 284.

of another. If it be a personal obligation there, it must be enforced here in the mode pointed out by the law of this country; but what the nature of the obligation is must be determined by the law of the country where it was entered into, and then this country will apply its own law to enforce it."(*a*) It should be remarked that Heath, J., dissented from the above view, but only on the ground that the contract sued on was in his opinion a personal one, and that the question of arrest was therefore merely one of remedy. On the assumption that the contract was not a personal promise by French law, but a mere hypothecation of property, the decision was no doubt right; but that the view taken by Heath, J., was in reality more consonant to the facts of the case appears from the opinion which Lord Ellenborough intimated in *Imlay v. Ellesfen*,(*b*) and from the later decision in *De la Vega v. Vianna*,(*c*) which may be regarded as having settled the law on the subject. In *Don v. Lippman* (*d*) the general principles applicable to such cases were stated with much clearness by Lord Brougham: "The contract being silent as to the law by which it is to be governed, nothing is more likely than that the *lex loci contractus* should be considered at the time the rule (*sc.* of the remedy), for the parties could not suppose that the contract might afterwards come before the tribunals of a foreign country. But it is otherwise when the remedy actually comes to be enforced. The parties do not necessarily look to the remedy when they make the contract. They bind themselves to do what the law they live under requires; but as they bind themselves generally, it may be taken as if they had contemplated the possibility of enforcing it in another country. . . . Not only the principles of the law, but the known course of the Courts, renders it necessary that the rules of precedent should be adopted, and that the parties should take the law as they find it, when they come to enforce their contract. . . .

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Process.

(*a*) *Melan v. Fitzjames*, 1 B. & P. 138, 141; and see *Talleyrand v. Boulangier*, 3 Ves. 447.

(*b*) 2 East, 453.

(*c*) 1 B. & Ad. 284.

(*d*) 5 Cl. & F. 1, 13.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Process.

The distinction which exists as to the principle of applying the remedy, exists with even greater force as to the practice of the Courts when the remedy is to be enforced. No one can say that, because the contract has been made abroad, the form of action known in the foreign court must be pursued in the courts where the contract is to be enforced, or the other preliminary proceedings of those Courts must be adopted, or that the rules of pleading, or the curial practice of the foreign country, must necessarily be followed. . . . No one will contend in terms that foreign rules of evidence should guide us in such cases ; and yet it is not so easy to avoid that principle in practice, if you once admit that though the remedy is to be enforced in one country, it is to be enforced according to the laws which govern another country.”(a)

It may be convenient to state under this head the rules of the English Courts with reference to the service of writs or notices of writs out of the jurisdiction.

Until the passing of the Common Law Procedure Act, 1852, there was no provision for the service of any writ or process outside the jurisdiction, and though the 18th section of that Act remedied the defect, Scotland and Ireland were expressly exempted from its provisions. The original Order (Order XI.) in the Judicature Rules, framed on the passing of the Judicature Act, 1875, removed this distinction ; but it will be seen, on reference to this Order in its present revised form, that in favour of persons “ domiciled or ordinarily resident in ” Scotland or Ireland the older practice is preserved. It must be remembered that service out of the jurisdiction is an interference with the ordinary course of the law, and, apart from statute, no Court has power to allow it.(b)

Order XI. r. 1, in its existing form, provides as follows :—

“ Order XI. r. 1. Service out of the jurisdiction of a writ of summons or notice of a writ of summons may be allowed by the Court or a judge whenever—

(a) Per Lord Brougham, in *Don v. Lippman*, 5 Cl. & F. 1, 13, 14.

(b) *Re Busfield*, 32 Ch. D. 123 ; *Re Maughan*, 22 W. R. 748.

- “(a) The whole subject-matter of the action is land situate within the jurisdiction (with or without rents or profits); or
- “(b) Any act, deed, will, contract, obligation, or liability, affecting land or hereditaments situate within the jurisdiction, is sought to be construed, rectified, set aside, or enforced in the action; or
- “(c) Any relief is sought against any person domiciled or ordinarily resident within the jurisdiction; or
- “(d) The action is for the administration of the personal estate of any deceased person who, at the time of his death, was domiciled within the jurisdiction; or for the execution (as to property situate within the jurisdiction) of the trusts of any written instrument, of which the person to be served is a trustee, which ought to be executed according to the law of England; or
- “(e) The action is founded on any breach or alleged breach within the jurisdiction of any contract, wherever made, which, according to the terms thereof, ought to be performed within the jurisdiction, unless the defendant is domiciled or ordinarily resident in Scotland or Ireland; or
- “(f) Any injunction is sought as to anything to be done within the jurisdiction, or any nuisance within the jurisdiction is sought to be prevented or removed, whether damages are or are not also sought in respect thereof; or
- “(g) Any person out of the jurisdiction is a necessary or proper party to an action properly brought against some other person duly served within the jurisdiction.”

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Process.

In accordance with the terms of the rule, it has been held that Order XI. r. 1, applies equally to the service of a writ of summons and of notice of a writ of summons, the service required in each case being the same.(a)

By r. 6 of the same Order, when the defendant is neither

(a) *Scott v. Wax Candle Co.*, 1 Q. B. D. 404, and Order XI. r. 7.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Process.

a British subject nor in British dominions, notice of the writ, and not the writ itself, is to be served on him. And where a writ itself is served upon a foreigner not in British dominions (in violation of the rule), the service is a nullity, and not a mere irregularity, so that all subsequent proceedings will be set aside.(a) In such a case, it appears, from the authorities just cited, that the defendant himself may come to the English Court and apply by summons to set the proceedings aside, though it might imperil his position if he first appeared to the writ. It is the logical complement of r. 6 that either a British subject in foreign dominions or a foreigner in British dominions may be served with a writ itself.(b) It would seem that third-party notices and counter-claims, being governed by the rules applicable to the service of writs, may be served out of the jurisdiction with leave under Order XI. r. 1.(c) But an "originating summons" in the Chancery Division cannot be so served.(d) Nor is there power to serve on a bankrupt who is resident in a foreign country, and actually out of the jurisdiction at the time, an order for his attendance for his public examination.(e) The general rule is stated by Lord Esher, in the case just cited, as being that, when the Legislature has enacted that a thing is to be done by one of the Queen's Courts, the meaning *prima facie* is only that the Court may do that thing within the Queen's dominions. It is at least doubtful whether the learned judge did not mean within that part of the Queen's dominions which is within the jurisdiction of the Court. Service in Scotland, Ireland, or the

(a) *Hewitson v. Fabre*, 21 Q. B. D. 6; *Boyle v. Sacker*, 39 Ch. D. 249; *Preston v. Lamont*, 1 Ex. D. 361.

(b) *Fowler v. Barstow*, 20 Ch. D. 246; *Great Australian Co. v. Martin*, 5 Ch. D. 1; *Padley v. Camphausen*, 10 Ch. D. 550; *Spiller v. Bristol*, 13 Q. B. D. 96; *Bacon v. Turner*, 3 Ch. D. 275.

(c) *Dubout v. Macpherson*, 23 Q. B. D. 341; *Swansea, &c., Co. v. Duncan*, 1 Q. B. D. 648; Order XVI. r. 48; Order XXI. r. 12.

(d) *Re Busfield*, 32 Ch. D. 123. See as to petitions, &c., the Annual Practice, Order XI. r. 1, notes pp. 230, *sq.*; and on the general principles, see *Lenders v. Anderson*, 12 Q. B. D. 56; *Hewitson v. Fabre* 21 Q. B. D. 6; and *Re Busfield*, *supra*.

(e) *In re Wendt*, 22 Q. B. D. 733.

colonies is service out of the jurisdiction within Order XI.
r. 1.(a)

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Proof.

Evidence
governed by
lex fori.

(iv.) *Evidence necessary and admissible to support an Action.*—This branch of the subject has been already considered when treating of formalities, and it is unnecessary to do more here than recapitulate the conclusions arrived at. The *lex fori* decides all questions relating to the *admissibility* of evidence; but if the evidence, when admitted, goes to show that no obligation was ever validly created by the *lex loci*, and not merely that the obligation, though duly created, could not have been proved in the foreign tribunal, the rules of the *forum* as to procedure will not, of course, be allowed to create an obligation where none existed before.(b) Similarly, when the *lex fori* demands a particular kind of evidence to support a particular kind of contract, no obligation arising from such a contract can be recognised, although it may in the first instance have been validly created by the *lex loci actus*, and could be put in suit in a foreign court. The English Statute of Frauds has accordingly been held to apply to contracts made abroad, and sued upon here.(c) The necessity of distinguishing between the formalities preliminary to the validity of the contract, and those preliminary to the enforcement of the remedy in the country where it was made, will be seen from the case of *Ex parte Melbourn*,(d) which has been already cited; and it is plain that it will be necessary to prove the former in every tribunal, while the latter will be dispensed with everywhere but in the courts of the *locus celebrationis*.

The law on this subject has been briefly expressed by Lord Brougham in *Bain v. Whitehaven and Furness Railway Company*.(e) Whether a witness is competent or not; whether a certain matter requires to be proved by

(a) Cf. *Re Busfield*, 32 Ch. D. 123; *supra*, p. 328.

(b) *Bristow v. Sequeville*, 5 Ex. 275, 279; *Alves v. Hodgson*, 7 T. R. 241; *Clegg v. Levy*, 2 Camp. 166.

(c) *Leroux v. Brown*, 12 C. B. 801; *Acebal v. Levy*, 10 Bing. 376.

(d) L. R. 6 Ch. 64.

(e) 3 H. L. C. 1, 19.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Proof.

writing or not; *whether certain evidence proves a certain fact or not*: that is to be determined by the law of the country where the question arises, where the remedy is sought to be enforced, and where the Court sits to enforce it. It would seem, however, where evidence is taken in one country in aid of a suit or action elsewhere, either on ordinary commission or with the assistance of the local Courts (as in cases under 19 & 20 Vict. c. 113, *infra*), that the prevailing law must be the law of the country where the suit is actually pending for which the evidence is taken, as being the true *forum*.(a)

Foreign facts
—how proved.

(v.) *Proof of Facts peculiarly Foreign*.—The amount of evidence necessary to support a right of action in any particular tribunal, and the admissibility of the evidence offered for that purpose, being thus determined by the *lex fori*, it remains to consider what kind of evidence is required by the Court when investigating certain peculiarly foreign facts. It is unnecessary to say that the ordinary rules of evidence apply indiscriminately to the proof of *res gestæ* and other incidents relevant to the cause of action, wherever they may have taken place; but it is not equally apparent what rules apply to the proof of foreign documents, or of foreign law. First, with regard to foreign documents, it is clear that the Court must have the evidence of a translator; a translator being, in the words of Lord Chelmsford, a witness as to the meaning and also the grammatical construction of the words.(b) Next, it must have evidence, adduced by foreign experts if necessary, of the meaning of any words which are of a technical description, or which have a peculiar meaning, different from that which, if literally translated into our language, they would bear. If the instrument is not only written in a foreign language, but to be controlled by a foreign law,(c) according to any of the principles already laid down, then if there is any principle of construction

Proof of
foreign
documents.

Proof of
foreign law.

(a) See per Cockburn, C.J., in *Dessilla v. Fole*, 40 L. T. Rep. 423.

(b) *Di Sora v. Phillips*, 10 H. L. C. 624, 639.

(c) As to the proper law to govern the construction of foreign contracts, *vide ante*, p. 378.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Proof.

applicable to that document by such foreign law, the foreign law on this point must be proved in the manner which will be shown below. The judge "has not organs to know and to deal with the text of the foreign law, and therefore requires the assistance of a lawyer who knows how to interpret it."(a) The witnesses having supplied the judge with these facts, they must retire and leave his sufficiently informed mind to his own proper office—that of ascertaining for himself the intention of the parties; or, in other words, of construing the instrument in question.(b) So, if there is a foreign custom which affects the construction of a foreign document, witnesses must be heard to explain what the custom is, as evidence is received of customs in respect of trade matters, before the judge can pronounce on the proper effect to be given to it.(c) But the foreign document, though construed according to the foreign law to which it is generally subject, and explained by reference to foreign facts, is only admissible in evidence, as has been said, according to the rules of the *lex fori*, and no foreign law will avail to make that primary evidence in a foreign court which is secondary evidence according to the law of procedure which is there followed.(d) Where, however, a particular value is given by the foreign law to a foreign document as proof of a fact within the jurisdiction of that law, the same weight will be given to it in any other tribunal, when the foreign law is proved to its satisfaction. Thus, where it was desired to prove a marriage in France which was celebrated before the Revolution, and it was proved by French advocates that registers of marriage were kept at Lille by official authority, and that those registers were authentic documents both before and since the Revolution, properly authenticated copies of these were admitted to prove the marriage.(e) And in a more modern case a

Proof of
foreign
documents.

(a) Per Lord Brougham in the *Sussex Peerage Case*, 11 Cl. & F. 115.

(b) *Di Sora v. Phillips*, 10 H. L. C. 624, 639.

(c) Per Lord Mansfield in *Mostyn v. Fabrigas*, Cowp. 174; 1 Sm. L. C. 677.

(d) *Brown v. Thornton*, 6 A. & E. 185.

(e) *Biddulph v. Lord Camoye*, cited by Keating, J., 29 L. J. P. & M. 58.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Proof.

document was tendered to prove a marriage in Chili, which purported to be an extract from a register of marriages, signed by the curate-rector of the Chilian church where it was solemnised. The signature was duly verified by a public notary, and certified under the hand and seal of the British consul. On proof being adduced that a register was kept by the curate-rector of every church in Chili of the marriages solemnised in it, and that certificates of marriages such as that tendered were received in the Chilian courts as evidence of the marriage which they purported to certify, the document was received to prove the marriage in question.(a) But a copy of a foreign judgment, certified in a similar manner, will not be entitled to reception here, every tribunal being of course entitled to lay down for itself the manner in which it will take cognizance of the decrees of a foreign court.(b) It is now provided by statute that all judgments, decrees, orders, or other judicial proceedings of any court of justice in any foreign State or in any British colony, and all other affidavits, pleadings, and other legal documents filed or deposited in any such court, may be proved in any court of justice, or before any person having by law or by consent of parties authority to hear, receive, and examine evidence, either by examined copies, or by authenticated copies purporting to be sealed with the seal of the court to which the original belongs, or, in the event of such court having no seal, to be signed by the judge or one of the judges of the said court; and that it shall not be necessary to prove the seal or signature with which such authenticated copy purports to be sealed or signed.(c) Similar provisions are contained in the same statute for the proof of proclamations, treaties, and other foreign acts of State.

The common practice of taking evidence abroad by means of a commission clothed with the authority, not of

(a) *Abbott v. Abbott*, 29 L. J. P. & M. 57.

(b) *Appleton v. Lord Braybrooke*, 6 M. & S. 34; and see 9 Mod. 66.

(c) 14 & 15 Vict. c. 99, s. 7.

the tribunal or Government in the country where the evidence is taken, but of the tribunal requiring such evidence, is not regarded with uniform approval. In some States municipal laws exist which prohibit the administration of an oath, the taking of evidence, or the exercise of any function that could be called judicial by any persons other than the officers of the local tribunals. This is a matter which of course every State has a right to regulate for itself, and does not involve any principle of international law, though such regulations may often interpose practical difficulties in the examination of witnesses abroad.(a) By an English statute (19 & 20 Vict. c. 113) (printed in the appendix to this chapter) jurisdiction is given to the English courts, or to any judge thereof, to order the examination upon oath before a commissioner of any witness within the jurisdiction, upon application for that purpose (by summons at chambers), in aid of any civil or commercial suit in a foreign country, without any writ being issued or other proceedings taken in the English court. Provision is made for compelling the attendance of witnesses; and false evidence given upon such an examination is made perjury (s. 3). Though it does not appear that much use has been made of this statute, it has been resorted to in the Divorce Court.(b) It would appear that, in such cases, questions as to the admissibility of evidence would be decided by the law of the country where the suit was pending, which is the real *forum*.(c)

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Proof.

The proof of foreign law is mainly controlled by the Proof of foreign law.

(a) In 1886 this right was practically asserted in Germany, and proceedings were actually taken there against Mr. A. B. Kempe, an English barrister who had been appointed to take evidence on commission by the English High Court of Justice. As to the persons before whom affidavits for the Probate Division are to be taken abroad where the local law forbids the administration of an oath by a British consul, see *In the Goods of Favous*, 9 P. D. 241, and 21 & 22 Vict. c. 95, s. 31. For an analogous instance when an affidavit has been admitted without having been sworn before a consul (under 15 & 16 Vict. c. 86, s. 22), see *Lyle v. Elwood*, 15 Eq. 67.

(b) See, e.g., *Hutchins v. Hutchins*, L. R. 1 P. & D. 153; *Simpson v. Hazard*, W. N. 1887, p. 115.

(c) *Dessilla v. Fels*, 44 L. T. Rep. 423.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Proof.

principle that the law of a foreign State is a fact which must be established by evidence like any other, and of which no tribunal or judge has a right to take judicial notice. No judicial knowledge or discernment is attributed to a judge in such a matter; and if proper proof of a foreign law is not adduced, the Court must proceed according to the law of England.(a) All that can be required of a tribunal adjudicating on a question of foreign law is to receive and consider all the evidence as to it which is available, and *bonâ fide* to determine on that, as well as it can, what the foreign law is. If from the imperfect evidence produced before it, or its misapprehension of the effect of that evidence, a mistake is made, it is much to be lamented, but the tribunal is free from blame.(b) The judge "has not organs to know and to deal with the text of the foreign law, and therefore requires the assistance of a lawyer who knows how to interpret it."(c) How far the function of the judge is limited to the reception of this evidence and this assistance is perhaps not wholly free from doubt. It was said by Lord Langdale, that though a knowledge of foreign law is not to be imputed to the judge, there may be imputed to him a knowledge of the general art of reasoning; and that there may therefore be cases in which the judge may, without impropriety, take upon himself to construe the words of a foreign law, and determine their application to the case before him, especially if there should be a variance or want of clearness in the testimony.(d) The same view had been apparently adopted by Lord Stowell in earlier cases,(e) limiting the exercise of this function to the consideration of those authorities which were directly referred to by the witnesses; but, as Lord Langdale remarked in the case cited, a judge endowed as Lord Stowell was might perhaps safely

(a) *Lloyd v. Guibert*, L. R. 1 Q. B. 115, 129; *Brown v. Gracey*, D. & R. N. P. 41, n. (b) *Castrique v. Imrie*, L. R. 4 H. L. 414, 427.

(c) *Sussex Peerage Case*, 11 Cl. & F. 115, per Lord Brougham.

(d) *Nelson v. Bridport*, 8 Beav. 537.

(e) *Lindo v. Belisario*, 1 Hagg. Cons. 216; *Dalrymple v. Dalrymple*, 2 Hagg. Cons. 54.

do some things which other judges might find it very hazardous to imitate.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Proof.

Foreign law—
whether
examinable by
Court.

The Court of Appeal, however, has held quite recently that judges are entitled to look at written laws expressly referred to in the evidence of foreign experts, but only at the sections so referred to.^(a) This rule was laid down after *Nelson v. Bridport* and the *Sussex Peerage Case* had been cited, and may therefore be regarded as conclusively established for the English Courts. The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, indeed, had as long ago as 1857 assumed an apparently unrestricted right to examine for themselves, not only foreign statutes, but foreign reports and text-writers,^(b) but there is no other direct authority for the proposition that a judge may of his own mere motion look even at the written or printed laws of a foreign State. In a recent case in the Exchequer Chamber the provisions of the French Code de Commerce were, no doubt, examined critically by the Court, but it is especially remarked in the judgments that the whole Code was, *by agreement of the parties*, considered to be in evidence.^(c) The doctrine that it is necessary to prove foreign law as a fact by oral testimony was not therefore impugned, nor is the case even an authority for the admissibility in evidence of the statute law or codes of a foreign country, where the objection is not waived. The objection, though not waived, does not appear to have been taken in *Trimbey v. Vignier*,^(d) in which the same articles of the Code de Commerce came in question, and were no doubt looked at by the Court. "Upon this point of French law," says Tindal, C.J., "the opinions of the foreign advocates which have been taken by consent since the trial of the cause appear to be contradictory; but as each of them founds his opinion on the Code de Commerce, arts. 137, 138, we feel ourselves at liberty to refer to the text of that Code, in order to form our own judgment on the point." It will

(a) *Concha v. Murrieta*, 40 Ch. D. 543, 549.

(b) *Bremer v. Freeman*, 10 Moo. P. C. 306, 363.

(c) *Bradlaugh v. De Rin*, L. R. 5 C. P. 473.

(d) 1 Bing. N. C. 151, 158.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Proof.

be observed that in that case the opinions of the foreign advocates was taken by consent after the trial, and the disputed articles of the Code were in fact quoted in those opinions; so that both litigants appear to have waived their right to object to anything beyond the testimony of an expert. It is obvious that there is considerable danger in permitting any judge to attempt the construction and application of a foreign code or statute for himself. The opinion of a continental judge, for example, upon the 4th section of the Statute of Frauds, given in ignorance that it had ever been the subject of judicial decision, would certainly be more likely to be wrong than right; and the stricter view would seem to be that a litigant has a right to demand, if he chooses, that the opinion of the witnesses as to the foreign law shall be accepted as conclusive, without any attempt being made by the judge to supplement it by an examination of the foreign law for himself. It is the office of the judge in such a case to decide upon the testimony submitted to him, not upon the comparative validity of the reasons given by the witnesses in support of their opposite opinions; (a) and the distinction between the task of construing a foreign document or contract after the law affecting it has been proved, and the task of ascertaining that law as a preparatory step towards doing so, will be well seen from the case just cited. The authorities, however, for the proposition that foreign written law may be looked at by the judge, are entitled to considerable respect, and in the *Sussex Peerage Case* (b) Lord Campbell gave his opinion in favour of that view in opposition to that taken by Lord Brougham. The Supreme Court of the United States, in a judgment cited at length by Story, (c) have expressed their opinion that the true rule was, that a foreign written law may be received when it is found in a statute book, with proof that the

(a) *Di Sora v. Phillips*, 10 H. L. C. 624, 638.

(b) 11 Cl. & F. 85, 114; see *Baron de Bode's Case*, 8 Q. B. 208; *Miller v. Heinrich*, 4 Camp. 155; *Lacon v. Higgins*, 3 Stark. N. P. C. 178; *Picton's Case*, 30 How. St. Tr. 491; *Middleton v. Janverin*, 2 Hagg. Cons. 437.

(c) Story, Conflict of Laws, § 641 a, n.

book has been officially published by the Government which made the law. It has been said by Blackburn, J., that there is great and obvious danger of error in any attempt to construe the written code of a foreign law, without the aid of foreign lawyers to explain it,(a) but the rule as laid down for England in *Concha v. Murrieta* (*suprà*), admitting for judicial examination only those parts of foreign codes or statutes which have been expressly referred to by expert witnesses, ought to reduce this peril to a minimum. Nevertheless, it does not wholly exclude it.

Whatever may be the true rule, however, as to the right of the Court to look at the written or printed laws of a foreign country, it is certain that all foreign law may, and all unwritten foreign law must, be proved by parol evidence. The only witness competent to give such evidence is some person who is conversant with the foreign law, either as a legal practitioner in the foreign State, or as holding some other office there the duties of which would entail such knowledge. It does not appear necessary that he should be a legal practitioner or professor, at any rate if the law (b) to be proved is a mercantile custom; but it is clearly not sufficient that his knowledge of the law of the foreign State should be derived from his having studied it in another country.(c) If this were enough, as Alderson, B., observed in *Bristow v. Sequeville*, why should not a Frenchman, who had read books relating to Chinese law, be called to prove what the law of China really is? And in *Cartwright v. Cartwright*,(d) before Sir James Hannen in the Probate Division of the High Court, in June 1878, it was held that the Canadian marriage law could not be proved by the testimony of an English barrister, who had enjoyed a large practice in Canadian appeals before the Judicial Com-

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Proof.

Foreign law
—proved by
experts.

(a) Per Blackburn, J., in *Castrique v. Imrie*, 39 L. J. C. P. 350, 355.

(b) *Vanderdonckt v. Thellusson*, 8 C. B. 812. See *R. v. Povey*, 22 L. J. M. C. 19.

(c) *Bristow v. Sequeville*, 5 Ex. 275; 19 L. J. Ex. 289; *In the Goods of Bonelli*, L. R. 1 P. D. 69.

(d) 26 W. R. 684.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Proof.

mittee of the Privy Council; such a practitioner, not being an expert, in the contemplation of law, qualified to give evidence concerning the law of those countries for which the Privy Council is the ultimate court of appeal. Such a witness must be a person *peritus virtute officii*, according to Lord Lyndhurst, (a) from whose language it appears further that where the witness has no *officium*, he can have no *peritia*; and therefore that a mere resident in a foreign country is not a competent witness to prove its law. (b) It must be doubted whether the decision of Lord Tenterden, that a French vice-consul in England is *peritus virtute officii*, so as to be a competent witness to prove French law, would be followed at the present day. But a Persian ambassador has been allowed to give evidence of Persian law, on his stating that members of the Persian diplomatic service were expected to be versed in law, but that there were no professional lawyers in Persia. (c) And in a recent case the law of Russia as to the wills of members of the Russian Imperial family seems to have been proved by "the certificate of the Russian ambassador." (d)

Foreign law
—statutory
proof of.

In addition to this ordinary and common law method of proving foreign law, it was enacted by the Legislature in 1861 (24 Vict. c. 11) that in any action in one of the English superior courts, and now therefore in any action in any of the divisions of the High Court of Justice, it shall be competent for the Court to state and remit a special case to a superior court of any foreign country with which a convention to that effect shall have been made, in order to ascertain the law of that foreign country; and that a certified copy of the opinion of the foreign Court upon the case submitted to it shall be admitted to

(a) *Sussex Peerage Case*, 11 Cl. & F. 85, 134, where *R. v. Dent*, 1 C. & K. 97, is said to be not law; see also *R. v. Pictou*, 40 How. St. Tr. 509; *Ward v. Dey*, 7 Notes of Cases, 96.

(b) *Ibid.*

(c) *In the Goods of Dost Ali Khan*, 6 P. D. 6.

(d) *In the Goods of Prince of Oldenburg*, 9 P. D. 234, apparently following *In the Goods of Klingemann*, 32 L. J. Prob. 16, and *In the Goods of Dormoy*, 3 Hagg. Eccl. 767, where a certificate of the French consul-general was received. This ambassadorial privilege seems peculiar to the Probate Court.

prove the foreign law. The opinion of the foreign Court, however, is not to be conclusive evidence, as the 2nd section of the same Act authorises the English Court to apply the opinion to the facts, in the same way as if it had been pronounced by itself upon a case reserved or upon a special verdict, "if it shall think fit." The 3rd section of the Act authorises the English Courts to pronounce opinions upon cases similarly remitted to them by foreign States; but it must of course be noted that these provisions only apply to those foreign countries or States with the Governments of which a convention has been entered into by the British Government for the purpose of mutually ascertaining British and foreign law in the respective cases. The convention will, of course, determine in each instance to what court or courts in the foreign country the application is to be made; but it is not likely that the Act itself will ever be made extensively available.(a) A similar enactment was passed in 1859 for the ascertainment of the law administered in one part of her Majesty's dominions when pleaded in the courts of another part.(b) The two statutes in question are, for the sake of convenience, subjoined in the appendix to this chapter.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Proof.

SUMMARY.

PROCEDURE.

The remedy is to be enforced according to the mode of p. 501. the *lex fori*, though the right of action be sometimes indirectly affected by the application of the rule. Thus,

(i.) (a) The *lex fori* controls the question of the name p. 501. in which the action is to be brought, but not the title to a right of action, when that affects the ultimate direction in which its benefits are to flow. Title validly conferred creates a foundation for procedure.

(a) No convention appears to have been in fact made. See note to text of statutes as to Order in Council extending these Acts, *mutatis mutandis*, to Ottoman Empire (consular courts).

(b) 22 & 23 Vict. c. 63.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

pp. 503, 506.

p. 508.

(b) So liability is determined by the proper law which imposes it, but when a personal liability is once imposed, the mode in which it is enforced, as, for example, by joint or several procedure, depends upon the *lex fori*.

(ii.) The *lex fori* determines the time within which an action may be brought—that is, the time within which an obligation may be enforced depends upon the law of the tribunal which is asked to enforce it. But when the competent law has declared that an obligation, after a given time, shall be extinguished, and not merely rendered incapable of being enforced in a particular tribunal, the law of another tribunal cannot, by fixing a longer term of prescription, revive it. This qualification would seem to apply, whether the party against whom it is sought to revive the defunct obligation has resided during the whole term of prescription under the dominion of the *lex contractus* or *actus*, or not.

pp. 513–522.

(iii.) The *lex fori* determines the form and nature of the action by which a personal liability is sought to be enforced, and the process or execution which the tribunal uses to enforce it. But the *lex fori* can never convert into a personal liability that which is not so by the law which created the obligation.

p. 523.

(iv.) The *lex fori* determines the evidence by which an obligation must or may be proved. It cannot, however, create an obligation where none existed before, though it may refuse to recognise one that already exists.

p. 527.

(v.) All foreign facts, including the meaning of language and the existence of laws, are objective facts to be proved, of which the Court will not take judicial notice. Foreign laws, when referred to by expert witnesses, may be examined by the Court for itself, but only those parts or sections which are so referred to.

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER X.

19 & 20 VICT. C. 113.

An Act to provide for taking Evidence in her Majesty's Dominions in relation to Civil and Commercial Matters pending before Foreign Tribunals. [29th July 1856.]

Whereas it is expedient that facilities be afforded for taking evidence in her Majesty's dominions in relation to civil and commercial matters pending before foreign tribunals: Be it enacted, &c., as follows:

1. Where, upon an application for this purpose, it is made to appear to any Court or judge having authority under this Act that any Court or tribunal of competent jurisdiction in a foreign country, before which any civil or commercial matter is pending, is desirous of obtaining the testimony in relation to such matter of any witness or witnesses within the jurisdiction of such first-mentioned Court, or of the Court to which such judge belongs, or of such judge, it shall be lawful for such Court or judge to order the examination upon oath, upon interrogatories or otherwise, before any person or persons named in such order, of such witness or witnesses accordingly; and it shall be lawful for the said Court or judge, by the same order, or for such Court or judge or any other judge having authority under this Act, by any subsequent order, to command the attendance of any person to be named in such order, for the purpose of being examined, or the production of any writings or other documents to be mentioned in such order, and to give all such directions as to the time, place, and manner of such examination, and all other matters connected therewith, as may appear reasonable and just, and any such order may be enforced in like manner as an order made by such Court or judge in a cause depending in such Court or before such judge.

2. A certificate under the hand of the ambassador, Minister, or other diplomatic agent of any foreign Power received by her Majesty, or in case there be no such diplomatic agent, then of the consul-general or consul of any such foreign Power at London, received and admitted as such by her Majesty, that any matter in relation to which an application

Order for examination of witnesses in this country in relation to any civil or commercial matter pending before a foreign tribunal.

Certificate of ambassador, &c., sufficient evidence in support of application.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

is made under this Act is a civil or commercial matter pending before a Court or tribunal in the country of which he is the diplomatic agent or consul, having jurisdiction in the matter so pending, and that such Court or tribunal is desirous of obtaining the testimony of the witness or witnesses to whom the application relates, shall be evidence of the matters so certified; but where no such certificate is produced, other evidence to that effect shall be admissible.

Examination
of witnesses to
be upon oath.

3. It shall be lawful for every person authorised to take the examination of witnesses by any order made in pursuance of this Act, to take all such examinations upon the oath of the witnesses, or affirmation in cases where affirmation is allowed by law instead of oath, to be administered by the person so authorised; and if, upon such oath or affirmation, any person making the same wilfully and corruptly give any false evidence, every person so offending shall be deemed and taken to be guilty of perjury.

Payment of
expenses.

4. Provided always, that every person whose attendance shall be so required shall be entitled to the like conduct-money and payment for expenses and loss of time as upon attendance at a trial.

Persons to
have right of
refusal to
answer, &c.

5. Provided also, that every person examined under any order made under this Act shall have the like right to refuse to answer questions tending to criminate himself and other questions which a witness in any cause pending in the Court by which, or by a judge whereof, or before the judge [*sic*] by whom the order for examination was made would be entitled to; and that no person shall be compelled to produce, under any such order as aforesaid, any writing or other document that he would not be compellable to produce at a trial of such a cause.

Certain Courts
and judges
to have
authority.

6. Her Majesty's Superior Courts of Common Law (a) at Westminster and in Dublin respectively, the Court of Session in Scotland, and any Supreme Court in any of her Majesty's colonies or possessions abroad, and any judge of any such Court, and every judge in any such colony or possession who by any Order of her Majesty in Council may be appointed for this purpose, shall respectively be Courts and judges having authority under this Act: Provided that the Lord Chancellor, with the assistance of two of the judges of the Common Law

a) Now the Supreme Court of Judicature (Judicature Act, 1875, *q.v.*).

at Westminster, shall frame such rules and orders as shall be necessary or proper for giving effect to the provisions of this Act, and regulating the procedure under the same.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.
CAP. X.

22 & 23 VICT. C. 63.

An Act to afford Facilities for the more certain Ascertainment of the Law administered in one Part of her Majesty's Dominions when pleaded in the Courts of another Part thereof.
[13th August 1859.]

Whereas great improvement in the administration of the law would ensue if facilities were afforded for more certainly ascertaining the law administered in one part of her Majesty's dominions when pleaded in the Courts of another part thereof: Be it therefore enacted by the Queen's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords spiritual and temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

1. If in any action depending in any Court within her Majesty's dominions,^(a) it shall be the opinion of such Court that it is necessary or expedient for the proper disposal of such action to ascertain the law applicable to the facts of the case as administered in any other part of her Majesty's dominions on any point on which the law of such other part of her Majesty's dominions is different from that in which the Court is situate, it shall be competent to the Court in which such action may depend to direct a case to be prepared setting forth the facts, as these may be ascertained by verdict of a jury or other mode competent, or may be agreed upon by the parties, or settled by such person or persons as may have been appointed by the Court for that purpose in the event of the parties not agreeing, and upon such case being approved of by such Court or a judge thereof, they shall settle the questions of law arising out of the same on which they desire to have the opinion of another Court, and shall pronounce an order remitting the same, together with the case, to the Court in such other part of her Majesty's dominions, being one of the Superior Courts thereof, whose opinion is desired upon the law administered by them as applicable to the facts set forth

Courts in one part of her Majesty's dominions may remit a case for the opinion in law of a Court in any other part thereof.

(a) The Act is extended, *mutatis mutandis*, to the Ottoman dominions, by Order in Council dated May 13, 1882 (*London Gazette*, p. 2209).

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

in such case, and desiring them to pronounce their opinion on the questions submitted to them in the terms of the Act; and it shall be competent to any of the parties to the action to present a petition to the Court whose opinion is to be obtained, praying such last-mentioned Court to hear parties or their counsel, and to pronounce their opinion thereon in terms of this Act, or to pronounce their opinion without hearing parties or counsel; and the Court to which such petition shall be presented shall, if they think fit, appoint an early day for hearing parties or their counsel on such case, and shall thereafter pronounce their opinion upon the questions of law as administered by them which are submitted to them by the Court; and in order to their pronouncing such opinion they shall be entitled to take such further procedure thereupon as to them shall seem proper.^(a)

Opinion to be authenticated and certified copy given.

2. Upon such opinion being pronounced, a copy thereof, certified by an officer of such Court, shall be given to each of the parties to the action by whom the same shall be required, and shall be deemed and held to contain a correct record of such opinion.

Opinion to be applied by the Court making the remit.

3. It shall be competent to any of the parties to the action, after having obtained such certified copy of such opinion, to lodge the same with an officer of the Court in which the action may be depending who may have the official charge thereof, together with a notice of motion setting forth that the party will, on a certain day named in such notice, move the Court to apply the opinion contained in such certified copy thereof to the facts set forth in the case hereinbefore specified, and the said Court shall thereupon apply such opinion to such facts in the same manner as if the same had been pronounced by such Court itself upon a case reserved for opinion of the Court, or upon special verdict of a jury; or the said last-mentioned Court shall, if it think fit, when the said opinion has been obtained before trial, order such opinion to be submitted to the jury with the other facts of the case as evidence, or conclusive evidence as the Court may think fit, of the foreign law therein stated, and the said opinion shall be so submitted to the jury.

^(a) See as to case sent for opinion of Scotch Court, *Lord v. Colvin*, 1 Dr. & S. 24; and to Supreme Court of Calcutta, *Logan v. Coorg*, 30 Beav. 632.

4. In the event of an appeal to her Majesty in Council or to the House of Lords in any such action, it shall be competent to bring under the review of her Majesty in Council or of the House of Lords the opinion pronounced as aforesaid by any Court whose judgments are reviewable by her Majesty in Council or by the House of Lords, and her Majesty in Council or that House may respectively adopt or reject such opinion of any Court whose judgments are respectively reviewable by them, as the same shall appear to them to be well founded or not in law.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.
CAP. X.

Her Majesty
in Council or
House of Lords
on appeal may
adopt or reject
opinion.

5. In the construction of this Act, the word "action" shall include every judicial proceeding instituted in any Court, civil, criminal, or ecclesiastical; and the words "Superior Courts" shall include, in England, the Superior Courts of Law at Westminster, the Lord Chancellor, the Lords Justices, the Master of the Rolls or any Vice-Chancellor, the judge of the Court of Admiralty, the judge ordinary of the Court for Divorce and Matrimonial Causes, and the judge of the Court of Probate; in Scotland, the High Court of Justiciary, and the Court of Session acting by either of its divisions; in Ireland, the Superior Courts of Law at Dublin, the Master of the Rolls, and the judge of the Admiralty Court; and in any other part of her Majesty's dominions, the Superior Courts of Law or Equity therein.

Interpretation
of terms.

24 VICT. C. II.

An Act to afford Facilities for the better Ascertainment of the Law of Foreign Countries when pleaded in Courts within her Majesty's Dominions. [17th May 1861.]

Whereas an Act was passed in the twenty-second and twenty-third years of her Majesty's reign, intituled "An Act to afford Facilities for the more certain Ascertainment of the Law administered in one Part of her Majesty's Dominions when pleaded in the Courts of another Part thereof": And whereas it is expedient to afford the like facilities for the better ascertainment, in similar circumstances, of the law of any foreign country or State with the Government of which her Majesty may be pleased to enter into a convention (a) for the purpose

22 & 23 Vict.
c. 63.

(a) No convention as contemplated seems in fact to have been entered into.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Superior Courts within her Majesty's dominions may remit a case, with queries, to a Court of any foreign State with which her Majesty may have made a convention for that purpose, for ascertainment of law of such State.

Court in which action depends to apply such

of mutually ascertaining the law of such foreign country or State when pleaded in actions depending in any Courts within her Majesty's dominions and the law as administered in any part of her Majesty's dominions when pleaded in actions depending in the Courts of such foreign country or State: Be it therefore enacted by the Queen's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords spiritual and temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows; viz.

1. If, in any action depending in any of the Superior Courts(a) within her Majesty's dominions, it shall be the opinion of such Court that it is necessary or expedient, for the disposal of such action, to ascertain the law applicable to the facts of the case as administered in any foreign State or country with the Government of which her Majesty shall have entered into such convention as aforesaid, it shall be competent to the Court in which such action may depend to direct a case to be prepared setting forth the facts as these may be ascertained by verdict of jury or other mode competent, or as may be agreed upon by the parties, or settled by such person or persons as may have been appointed by the Court for that purpose in the event of the parties not agreeing; and upon such case being approved of by such Court or a judge thereof, such Court or judge shall settle the questions of law arising out of the same on which they desire to have the opinion of another Court, and shall pronounce an order remitting the same, together with the case, to such Superior Court in such foreign State or country as shall be agreed upon in said convention, whose opinion is desired upon the law administered by such foreign Court as applicable to the facts set forth in such case, and requesting them to pronounce their opinion on the questions submitted to them; and upon such opinion being pronounced, a copy thereof, certified by an officer of such Court, shall be deemed and held to contain a correct record of such opinion.

2. It shall be competent to any of the parties to the action, after having obtained such certified copy of such opinion, to lodge the same with the officer of the Court within her

(a) By Order in Council (*London Gazette*, Nov. 20, 1863, p. 5559) ss. 1 and 2 of this Act are extended to the Mayor's Court, London. And the Act is extended, *mutatis mutandis*, to the Ottoman dominions by Order in Council, May 13, 1882 (*London Gazette*, p. 2209).

Majesty's dominions in which the action may be depending who may have the official charge thereof, together with a notice of motion setting forth that the party will, on a certain day named in such notice, move the Court to apply the opinion contained in such certified copy thereof to the facts set forth in the case hereinbefore specified, and the said Court shall thereupon, if it shall see fit, apply such opinion to such facts, in the same manner as if the same had been pronounced by such Court itself upon a case reserved for opinion of the Court, or upon special verdict of a jury; or the said last-mentioned Court shall, if it think fit, when the said opinion has been obtained before trial, order such opinion to be submitted to the jury with the other facts of the case as conclusive evidence of the foreign law therein stated, and the said opinion shall be so submitted to the jury: Provided always, that if after having obtained such certified copy the Court shall not be satisfied that the facts had been properly understood by the foreign Court to which the case was remitted, or shall on any ground whatsoever be doubtful whether the opinion so certified does correctly represent the foreign law as regards the facts to which it is to be applied, it shall be lawful for such Court to remit the said case, either with or without alterations or amendments, to the same or to any other such Superior Court in such foreign State as aforesaid, and so from time to time as may be necessary or expedient.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.
CAP. X.

opinion to the facts set forth in cases, &c.

3. If in any action depending in any Court of a foreign country or State with whose Government her Majesty shall have entered into a convention as above set forth such Court shall deem it expedient to ascertain the law applicable to the facts of the case as administered in any part of her Majesty's dominions, and if the foreign Court in which such action may depend shall remit to the Court in her Majesty's dominions whose opinion is desired a case setting forth the facts and the questions of law arising out of the same on which they desire to have the opinion of a Court within her Majesty's dominions, it shall be competent to any of the parties to the action to present a petition to such last-mentioned Court whose opinion is to be obtained, praying such Court to hear parties or their counsel, and to pronounce their opinion thereon in terms of this Act, or to pronounce their opinion without hearing parties or counsel; and the Court to which such peti-

Courts in her Majesty's dominions may pronounce opinion on case remitted by a foreign Court.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. X.

Interpretation
of terms.

tion shall be presented shall consider the same, and, if they think fit, shall appoint an early day for hearing parties or their counsel on such case, and shall pronounce their opinion upon the questions of law as administered by them which are submitted to them by the foreign Court; and in order to their pronouncing such opinion they shall be entitled to take such further procedure thereupon as to them shall seem proper, and, upon such opinion being pronounced, a copy thereof, certified by an officer of such Court, shall be given to each of the parties to the action by whom the same shall be required.

4. In the construction of this Act, the word "action" shall include every judicial proceeding instituted in any Court civil, criminal, or ecclesiastical; and the words "Superior Courts" shall include, in England, the Superior Courts of Law at Westminster, the Lord Chancellor, the Lords Justices, the Master of the Rolls or any Vice-Chancellor, the judge of the Court of Admiralty, the judge ordinary of the Court for Divorce and Matrimonial Causes, and the judge of the Court of Probate; in Scotland, the High Court of Justiciary, and the Court of Session acting by either of its divisions; in Ireland, the Superior Courts of Law at Dublin, the Master of the Rolls, and the judge of the Admiralty Court; and in any other part of her Majesty's dominions, the Superior Courts of Law or Equity therein; and in a foreign country or State, any Superior Court or Courts which shall be set forth in any such convention between her Majesty and the Government of such foreign country or State.

CHAPTER XI.

FOREIGN JUDGMENTS.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.(i.) *Generally, and more particularly, Foreign Judgments in personam.*

THE judgments or decrees of any tribunal have obviously no right to claim recognition beyond the jurisdiction of that tribunal on any principle akin to that which renders them binding within it. They are in fact the judicial orders of the sovereign power in the State, pronounced by the mouth of one of its tribunals, and can only claim to be carried into effect by the executive officers of that State within its limits. (a) The comity of nations does, however, accord them a certain recognition, and it has been said by a celebrated American judge (b) that the Courts of England give as full effect to foreign sentences as is given to them in any part of the civilised world. Recognition may be accorded in three ways. The foreign judgment may either be adopted by the domestic Court as its own, and admitted to execution within its jurisdiction; or it may be received as evidence of the creation of an obligation; or lastly, it may be received as evidence of the original obligation, in a suit brought on the primary cause of action. The first of these methods, according to Westlake, (c) is that generally followed on the continent of Europe; though several of the continental nations, including France, enforce the judgments of other countries

(a) As to the proof of foreign judgments, see 14 & 15 Vict. c. 99, s. 7, and *ante*, p. 526.

(b) Marshall, C.J., in 4 Cranch, 270; Story, Conflict of Laws, § 590.

(c) Westlake, Priv. Int. Law, § 374.

PART IV. PROCEDURE.	only where there are reciprocal treaties to that effect;
CAP. XI.	the second is the mode adopted in England and America,
Judgments.	and in countries which possess a cognate system of jurisprudence; while in some few States, such as Sweden, Spain, and Norway, the plaintiff is relegated to his original cause of action. In England, then, a foreign judgment is ordinarily enforced by bringing an action upon it; and it is to be remarked that though it has been said that this practice does not strictly rest upon "what is loosely called international comity,"(a) it does rest strictly upon international comity, properly understood. According to Parke, B., "Where a Court of competent jurisdiction has adjudicated a certain sum to be due from one person to another, a legal obligation arises to pay that sum on which an action of debt to enforce the judg- ment may be maintained. It is in this way that the judgments of foreign and colonial Courts are supported and enforced."(b) This statement of principle was cited and adopted by Blackburn, J., in <i>Godard v. Gray</i> (c) and <i>Schibsbey v. Westenholz</i> , just referred to, and is in reality only a variation of the general rule that obligations which have once been duly created by a competent and appro- priate law will be recognised in all tribunals alike. The phrase comity of nations does emphatically mean this, or it means nothing.(d) But though the most usual mode of enforcing a foreign judgment in England is by bringing an action upon it, the plaintiff is not obliged to take this course. A foreign judgment involves no merger of the original cause of action; and it is therefore open to the plaintiff to sue upon that if he chooses.(e) "This, being
Enforcement by action.	

(a) Per Blackburn, J., in *Schibsbey v. Westenholz*, L. R. 6 Q. B. 159. For the mode of proof of foreign judgments, see 14 & 15 Vict. c. 99, s. 7, and ante, p. 526.

(b) *Williams v. Jones*, 13 M. & W. 633; *Russel v. Smyth*, 9 M. & W. 819.

(c) L. R. 6 Q. B. 139.

(d) Story, *Conflict of Laws*, §§ 38, 38 a; Westlake, § 148; Huber, *De Conflictu Legum*, s. 2; *Dalrymple v. Dalrymple*, 2 Hagg. Cons. 59.

(e) *Smith v. Nicolls*, 5 Bing. N. C. 208; *Hall v. Odber*, 11 East, 124; *Bank of Australasia v. Nias*, 16 Q. B. 717; *Bank of Australasia v. Harding*, 19 L. J. C. P. 345; 9 C. B. 661; *Castrique v. Behrens*, 30 L. J. Q. B. 163; *Kelsall v. Marshall*, 1 C. B. N. S. 241.

only a foreign judgment," said Bayley, J., in *Hall v. Odber*, "did not merge or extinguish the plaintiff's simple contract debt, which can only be done by converting it into a debt of a higher nature; it is only evidence of the debt." "If, then," says Tindal, C.J., in *Smith v. Nicolls*, "the judgment has not altered the nature of the rights between the parties, it appears to me that the plaintiff has his option, either to resort to the original ground of action, or to bring an *assumpsit* on the judgment recovered." It was suggested as a moot point before the Judicature Acts (a) whether, in cases where the plaintiff elected to sue on the original cause of action, it would not be open to the defendant to controvert the ground of action notwithstanding the production of the foreign judgment as evidence; on the same principle on which it has been held that where there is an opportunity of placing a domestic judgment on the record, and it is not placed there, it will not be conclusive. (b) It is hardly probable that the point will arise under the new practice, as it is most unlikely that the statement of claim in such a case would be framed without setting out both the original cause of action and the foreign judgment; but should a foreign judgment be relied upon only as evidence, and not as an original cause of action, it is quite clear that it would at least be evidence, and strong *prima facie* evidence, of the obligation on which it was based. Speaking of the ordinary practice of suing on a judgment, Blackburn, J., says in *Godard v. Gray* (c): "The mode of pleading shows that the judgment was considered, not as merely *prima facie* evidence of that cause of action for which the judgment was given, but as in itself giving rise, at least *prima facie*, to a legal obligation to obey that judgment and pay the sum adjudged. This may seem a technical mode of dealing with the question; but in truth it goes to the root of the matter. For if the judgment were merely

(a) *Doe v. Oliver*, 2 Sm. L. C. 813, n.(b) *Vooght v. Winch*, 2 B. & Ald. 162; *Doe v. Huddart*, 2 C. M. & R. 316.

(c) L. R. 6 Q. B. 139, 150.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

*Judgments.*Foreign
judgment—
validity of.Excess of
jurisdiction.

considered as evidence of the original cause of action, it must be open to meet it by any counter evidence negating the existence of that original cause of action.”(a) On this principle it has been held that the summary procedure in cases of contract given by Order XIV. under the Judicature Acts is applicable to an action on a foreign judgment.(b) But a foreign judgment which in its own *forum* creates a personal obligation only, will not be enforced in England by proceedings *in rem*.(c) And of course a foreign judgment which is not a bar to subsequent proceedings between the same parties, even in the country where it was obtained, is not a final judgment which can be sued upon in England.(d)

The ordinary mode adopted in England of enforcing a foreign judgment being, then, to bring an action upon it, as creating a substantive legal obligation, it becomes important to consider what objections may be taken to its validity. Anything which negatives the existence of that legal obligation, or excuses the defendant from the performance of it, must form a good defence to the action. It must be open, therefore, to the defendant to show that the Court which pronounced the judgment had not jurisdiction to pronounce it, either (a) because they exceeded the jurisdiction given to them by the foreign law, or (b) because he, the defendant, was not subject to that jurisdiction.(e) That the foreign Court should have had jurisdiction in the first instance is the essential condition implied by Parke, B., in his enunciation of the principle on which foreign judgments are recognised here, cited above,(f) and, indeed, hardly stands in need of authority to confirm it. But it is clearly not sufficient, in order to

(a) See also *Phillips v. Hunter*, 2 H. Bl. 410; *Sinclair v. Fraser*, Dougl. 5, n.; *Hall v. Odber*, 11 East, 124.

(b) *Grant v. Easton*, 13 Q. B. D. 302. Cf. *Hodsoll v. Baxter*, E. B. & E. 884, under the Common Law Procedure Act, 1852.

(c) *The City of Mecca*, 6 P. D. 106.

(d) *In re Henderson*, *Nouvion v. Freeman*, 37 Ch. D. 244; affirmed H. L. 59 L. J. Ch. 337.

(e) *Godard v. Gray*, L. R. 6 Q. B. 149.

(f) *Russel v. Smyth*, 9 M. & W. 819; *Williams v. Jones*, 11 M. & W. 633.

impeach a foreign judgment, to show that the Court which pronounced it had no jurisdiction by its own rules, if it had jurisdiction according to the principles of international law over the person of the defendant and the subject-matter of the action.(a) Thus a plea to an action on a judgment of the French Tribunal of Commerce, that the Court was not a Court of competent jurisdiction in that behalf, *according to the French law*, because the defendant was not a trader, and was not resident in a particular town when the cause of action arose, was held bad.(b) It is obvious that these defences, being admittedly defences by the French law, should have been pleaded in the French court, and it is well established that defences which might have been raised in the court where the judgment was obtained, cannot be brought forward afterwards to impeach it.(c) The rule that the person of the defendant must be properly subject to the jurisdiction has been put by modern cases in the clearest possible light, and has been summarised in a recent judgment as follows:—"The Courts of this country consider the defendant bound—

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

"(i.) Where he is the subject of the foreign country in which the judgment has been obtained ;

"(ii.) Where he was resident in the foreign country when the action began ;

"(iii.) Where the defendant, in the character of plaintiff, has selected the *forum* in which he is afterwards sued ;

"(iv.) Where he has voluntarily appeared ;

"(v.) Where he has contracted to submit himself to the *forum* in which the judgment was obtained ;

and, possibly, if *Becquet v. McCarthy* (2 B. & Ad. 951) be right,

"(vi.) Where the defendant has real estate within the foreign jurisdiction, in respect of which the

(a) *Vanquelin v. Bouard*, 33 L. J. C. P. 78, 84 ; 15 C. B. N. S. 341.

(b) S. C.

(c) *Henderson v. Henderson*, 6 Q. B. 288 ; *Bank of Australasia v. Nias*, 16 Q. B. 717 ; *Ricardo v. Garcias*, 12 Cl. & F. 368 ; *Vanquelin v. Bouard*, 33 L. J. C. P. 78 ; 15 C. B. N. S. 341.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

cause of action arose while he was within that jurisdiction.”(a)

With regard to the head (iv.) of this summary, attempts have been more than once made to narrow the meaning of the words “voluntary appearance;” but it may be now taken as settled that a defendant who appears and contests the suit, from motives of self-interest, is bound by the judgment pronounced in it. “Where a defendant appears in the foreign court and takes his chance of a judgment in his favour, although he appears in consequence of the duress of wishing to protect his property there, which is in the hands of the Court, or which will become liable to seizure in case he does not appear, he cannot afterwards say that he is not bound to submit to a judgment obtained under those circumstances.”(b) But the language of the Court of Appeal in the same case,(c) taken in conjunction with the words used by Blackburn, J., in *Schibsky v. Westenholz* (*infra*), lead to the conclusion that the language of Wills, J., is not quite correct, so far as the case of an appearance to protect property already seized by the foreign Court is concerned, and that such an appearance will be regarded as involuntary.

Upon the same principle, that a litigant who takes his chance of a decision in his favour ought to be bound by a decision against him, it has been decided that an appearance under protest, pleading both to the jurisdiction and to the merits of the case, is a voluntary appearance within this rule, and that the defendant was bound by an adverse judgment.(d) But it has been held that the appearance of a foreigner as a claimant in an interpleader issue, though the usual terms may be imposed upon him in making the order, does not justify the Court in making him a defendant to a counter-claim.(e)

(a) Per Fry, J., in *Rousillon v. Rousillon*, 14 Ch. D. 351, 371.

(b) Per Wills, J., in *Voinet v. Barrett*, 54 L. J. Q. B. 521; following *De Conze Brissac v. Rathbone*, 30 L. J. Ex. 238. Cf. *Gen. Steam Nav. Co. v. Guillou*, 11 M. & W. 877; 13 L. J. Ex. 168; and *Dufloy v. Birmingham*, 43 L. T. 688.

(c) 55 L. J. Q. B. 39. Cf. *infra*, p. 563.

(d) *Boissière v. Brockner*, 6 Times Law Rep. 85.

(e) *Eschger v. Morrison*, 6 Times Law Rep. 145.

In *Schibsby v. Westenholz* (a) it was held that a judgment of a foreign Court, obtained in default of appearance against a defendant, cannot be enforced in an English court, where the defendant, at the time the suit commenced, was not a subject of nor resident in the country in which the judgment was obtained; *for there existed nothing imposing any duty on the defendant to obey the judgment of the foreign Court.* "On this point," said Blackburn, J., delivering the opinion of the Court of Queen's Bench, "we think some things are quite clear on principle. If the defendants had been at the time of the judgment subjects of the country whose judgment is sought to be enforced against them, we think that its laws would have bound them. Again, if the defendants had been, at the time when the suit was commenced, so as to have the benefit of its laws protecting them, or, as it is sometimes expressed, owing temporary allegiance to that country, we think that its laws would have bound them. If at the time when the obligation was contracted the defendants were within the foreign country, but left it before the suit was instituted, we should be inclined to think the laws of that country bound them, though before finally deciding this we should like to hear the question argued. But every one of these suppositions is negatived in the present case. Again, we think it clear, upon principle, that if a person selected, as plaintiff, the tribunal of a foreign country as the one in which he would sue, he could not afterwards say that the judgment of that tribunal was not binding upon him." (b) With regard to the last case put, of submission to the jurisdiction by electing to sue in its tribunals, it is obvious that a plaintiff who has made such a submission cannot be afterwards heard to complain of its acceptance; and it has been held that a foreigner, though not resident or present within the jurisdiction of a domestic tribunal, and without any actual notice or knowledge of its proceedings, may nevertheless

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

*Judgments.*Jurisdiction
of tribunal
pronouncing
judgment.Submission to
jurisdiction of
tribunal
pronouncing
judgment.

(a) L. R. 6 Q. B. 155.

(b) See to the same effect per Parke, B., in *General Steam Navigation Co. v. Guillo*, 11 M. & W. 877, 894.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

be taken to have submitted to the jurisdiction as defendant by his previous conduct. In that case the replication alleged that the defendant was holder of shares in a French company, having its legal domicile at Paris, and became thereby subject, by the law of France, to all the liabilities belonging to holders of shares, and in particular to the conditions contained in the statutes or articles of association; that by these statutes it was agreed that all disputes arising during liquidation between shareholders should be submitted to the jurisdiction of the French Court; that every shareholder provoking a contest must elect a domicile, and in default election might be made for him at the office of the imperial procurator of the civil tribunal of the department in which the office of the company was situated, and that all summonses and notices should be validly served at the domicile formally or impliedly chosen; that the circumstances arose under which these statutes provided that it should be incumbent upon the defendant to elect a domicile as above, but that he never elected a domicile, and that the plaintiff therefore caused a summons in an action brought in the French court to be delivered for the defendant at the above-mentioned office; that this service was regular and amounted to notice by the law of France, and that, on default of appearance, judgment was recovered by default against the defendant. This replication was held good by the Court of Exchequer; though a similar replication in the same case, resting the defendant's submission merely upon his having become a member of a French company, and the provisions of the French law, omitting all reference to the statutes or articles of association, was held insufficient by a majority of the Court.^(a) The submission must clearly be deduced from the conduct of the person who is alleged to have submitted, and it would seem that this conduct should be something amounting to a contract or waiver. It is clearly not enough to show

(a) *Copin v. Adamson*, L. R. 9 Ex. 345; and see the comments on this case in *Rousillon v. Rousillon*, 14 Ch. D. 351, 371.

that a defendant has entered into business transactions, or become a member of a company, within a foreign country. He is not supposed to know all the law of the foreign country, simply because he enters into commercial relations with it; nor, if he knows it, is he therefore to be regarded as having submitted to its authority. Similarly where a private colonial statute authorised an unincorporated banking company to sue and be sued in the name of its chairman, and provided that execution upon any judgment so obtained against the chairman might be executed upon the goods and chattels of the individual members, it was held that the individual members were bound by a judgment against the chairman obtained in conformity with the statute, although not within the jurisdiction of the colonial Court, nor served with any notice, summons, or process of the action against the chairman. (a) The provisions of the local Act in this case, being the enactment by which the bank was constituted, were clearly regarded, not as part of the general colonial law, but as the private regulations and constitutions of the bank, to which all the members were assenting parties; and the decision is not an authority for the proposition that a person who becomes a member of a foreign company consents by implication to be governed by the general foreign law during his connection with it, though no doubt his submission to that law for certain purposes is complete. (b) So in another case, the owner of shares in a French company, who was bound by French law to elect a domicile at which all notices of judicial proceedings might be left for him, complied with the French law by electing a domicile in the prescribed forms, and these facts were held without doubt to afford a good answer to a plea that the French judgment against him, on which the action was founded, was obtained during his absence from France, and without any notice to him of the proceedings in the French tribunal. (c) If, in *Copin*

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

(a) *Bank of Australasia v. Harding*, 9 C. B. 661; 19 L. J. C. P. 345.(b) See per Amphlett, B., in *Copin v. Adamson*, L. R. 9 Ex. 345, 355.(c) *Vallée v. Dumergue*, 4 Ex. 290; 18 L. J. Ex. 398.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

Foreign judgment—may be impeached for fraud.

v. Adamson, the defendant had shown his knowledge of and acquiescence in the French law by a compliance with its provisions, it would not have been necessary, in order to bind him, to have referred to the statutes or articles of association of the company of which he was a member.

Next, it is now undisputed that a foreign judgment may be avoided by showing that it was obtained by the fraud of the party setting it up.^(a) It would seem clear that on principle the obligation which arises out of a foreign judgment should be regarded as vitiated by that which with respect to all other obligations prevents a plaintiff from profiting by or insisting on the right which he has legally acquired. The point was distinctly raised before the Court of Appeal in *Chancery*, and it was put beyond doubt, by the judgment of Lord Selborne, that the rule of Equity and Common Law upon it was the same: "It has been suggested that there may be a doubt about the power of a Court of law to give full effect to the allegations of fraud contained in those portions of the bill which relate to the foreign judgment. I should be sorry to think that anything should fall from this Court which might give the least colour to any doubt as to the power of a Court of law to take cognizance of fraud in obtaining foreign judgments. . . . I say, therefore, without hesitation, that supposing the fraud to be one provable here, it could be pleaded at law, and would be a legal defence."^(b) If, indeed, an English judgment is examinable for fraud, it would appear *à fortiori* that a foreign judgment must be so. A foreign judgment, like all other acts of judicial authority, must be impeachable from without; although it is not permitted to show that the Court was mistaken, it may be shown that it was misled. Fraud is an extrinsic collateral act which vitiates the most solemn proceedings of Courts of justice. In the words of Lord Coke,

(a) *Godard v. Gray*, L. R. 6 Q. B. 139, per Blackburn, J., at p. 149.

(b) *Ochsenbein v. Papelier*, L. R. 8 Ch. 695. See also, in addition to the cases cited, *Price v. Dewhurst*, 8 Sim. 279, 302; *Bank of Australasia v. Nias*, 16 Q. B. 717, 735; *Cammell v. Sewell*, 3 H. & N. 617, 646; *Castrigue v. Imrie*, L. R. 4 H. L. 414, 433; *Abouloff v. Oppenheimer*, 10 Q. B. D. 295; *Story's Conflict of Laws*, §§ 603, 607, 608; *Buller's N. P.* 244, n.

it avoids all judicial acts, ecclesiastical or temporal.(a) Thus, in an action on a foreign judgment, it was held on demurrer to be a good defence to plead that the judgment was obtained by the fraud of the plaintiff in representing to the foreign Court that the goods the subject-matter of the suit were not in his possession, and in concealing that they were in his possession.(b) But it would appear clear upon principle that the fraud relied upon must be the fraud of the party seeking to enforce the judgment.(c) The fraud of a witness, stranger to the suit, would be mere perjury; and to question a judgment upon such a ground as that would be to re-open almost every question of fact. The fraud alleged must not, however, be something which was virtually before the foreign Court, and decided by it.(d)

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.
CAP. XI.
Judgments.

Lastly, it is necessary to consider how far a foreign judgment is examinable on the merits. The foreign Court may have been mistaken in law, or in fact; and if mistaken in law, either in their interpretation of their own law, of English law, or of the law of some other country. The fact, however, that an appeal is pending in the foreign tribunals is no defence to an action here.(e) It has been stated that a foreign judgment will be reviewed here, if based upon an erroneous interpretation either of private international law (f) or of English law; (g) but the later decisions clearly show that this is a misapprehension. There can be no difference, in the words of Blackburn, J., between a mistake made by a foreign Court as to English law, and any other mistake, unless it is to be said that a defence

Foreign judgment—not examinable for error in law.

(a) Per De Grey, C.J., in *Duchess of Kingston's Case*, 2 Sm. L. C. 7th ed. 760.

(b) *Abouloff v. Oppenheimer*, 10 Q. B. D. 295.

(c) See per Brett, L.J., S. C. p. 298.

(d) *Castrique v. Behrens*, 30 L. J. Q. B. 163; Westlake, Priv. Int. Law, § 389, *infra*.

(e) *Scott v. Pilkington*, 2 B. & S. 11. But, *per Curiam* (p. 41), it may afford ground for the equitable interposition of the Court to prevent abuse of its process, and on proper terms to stay execution.

(f) Westlake, Priv. Int. Law, § 388, citing *Reiniers v. Druce*, 23 Beav. 145, 156; *Arnott v. Redfern*, 2 C. & P. 88; Felix, 327, n.

(g) 2 Sm. L. C. 7th ed. 448; Westlake, Priv. Int. Law, § 388, citing *Novelli v. Rossi*, 2 B. & Ad. 757.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

Castrique v. Imrie—judgment in.

which is easily proved is to be admitted, but that one which would give the Court much trouble to investigate is to be rejected; and, accordingly, no foreign judgment can be impeached by showing that it was wrongly arrived at. Nor does it make any difference that the error alleged appears on the face of the proceedings.^(a) The previous authorities, which had been construed by some writers as deciding that a foreign judgment will be invalidated by showing that it was founded upon a mistaken view of English law, are collected and explained in the valuable judgment of Blackburn, J., in *Castrique v. Imrie*,^(b) delivering the opinion of five of the judges. After stating that fraud would vitiate any obligation, even the obligation imposed by a foreign contract, that there was nothing equivalent to fraud in the case before the Court, and that all that was required of a tribunal that had to decide on a question of foreign law was that it receive and consider the evidence as to the foreign law, and *bona fide* determine on that as well as it can, the learned judge proceeded as follows:—"Various cases were cited as authorities that where a foreign Court has mistaken or misapplied the English law, the Courts of this country will not regard the foreign judgment; but we think they do not bear out any such general position. One class of cases—such as *Pollard v. Bell*,^(c) *Bird v. Appleton*,^(d) *Dagleish v. Hodgson*,^(e) and others—proceed on a principle not applicable to the present case. A judgment in an English court is not conclusive as to anything but the point decided, and therefore a judgment of conviction on an indictment for forging a bill of exchange, though conclusive as to the prisoner being a convicted felon, is not only not conclusive, but is not even admissible evidence of the forgery in an action on the bill, though the conviction must have proceeded on the ground that the bill was forged. But very early in insurance cases a practice began of treating the

(a) *Godard v. Gray*, L. R. 6 Q. B. 151, 152.

(b) L. R. 4 H. L. 414.

(d) 8 T. R. 562.

(c) 8 T. R. 434.

(e) 7 Bing. 495.

judgment of a Prize Court condemning a vessel as being the property of an enemy as not only conclusive evidence that the vessel was condemned, which of course it was, but also as conclusive evidence that the vessel was not neutral. There are many cases which proceed on the principle that where it can be made to appear that the judgment of the Prize Court did not proceed on the ground that the vessel was an enemy's property, it cannot be conclusive evidence that it was not neutral. In *Lothian v. Henderson*,^(a) the judgment of the House of Lords was that in a policy on a ship, warranted neutral, a stipulation, that a condemnation should not be conclusive evidence that the vessel was not neutral, was effectual. Lord Eldon, in delivering that judgment, expresses a strong opinion that the practice of receiving the sentences of Prize Courts as conclusive of the collateral matter was originally a mistake. And he also intimates an opinion that the cases just alluded to were attempts to graft a vicious exception on a rule originally vicious, but now become law. It is unnecessary to form or express any opinion on these cases, further than that they proceed on a principle that has no bearing on the present question.

"*Novelli v. Rossi*,^(b) which was relied on, also proceeds on a principle not at all applicable to the present case. It is clear that no judgment of a foreign Court can have any effect unless the subject-matter of the decision (whether *inter partes* or *in rem*) is within the lawful control of the State whose tribunal has pronounced the judgment. In *Novelli v. Rossi* a Frenchman had, at Lyons, drawn a bill on an Englishman in London. The defendant had, at Manchester, indorsed it to the plaintiff. Afterwards the defendant instituted a suit in France to have it declared that he and all prior parties were discharged from their obligations on the bill on account of a cancellation of the acceptance in London by mistake; and, notwithstanding the opposition of the plaintiff, the French Court, on a mistaken view of the English law,

(a) 3 B. & P. 499, at p. 545.

(b) 2 B. & Ad. 757.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

pronounced a judgment to that effect. But though the French tribunals had jurisdiction to declare that no one should sue on the bill in their courts, they had none to determine that the plaintiff should not sue in an English court on an English contract. If they had taken a correct view of the English law there would have been a defence, because such was the English law, not because the French Court had so decided. Being wrong, there was no defence, not because the French Court made a mistake, but because it had no jurisdiction.

"The same principle will, we believe, be found to lie at the bottom of those cases in which our Courts have refused to enforce judgments obtained in a foreign country against a person not resident in that country, and who had no notice of the suit, such as *Buchanan v. Rucker*.^(a) It may very well be held that the foreign country has no jurisdiction to pronounce judgment against a person behind his back who is not subject to its jurisdiction; but it is unnecessary to examine these cases; for in the present one the ship concerned was clearly within the jurisdiction of the empire of France; and the plaintiff had notice, and was heard, though unluckily the French Court made a mistake.

"*Simpson v. Fogo* ^(b) was also cited, but that case proceeded on a principle very different from any applicable to the present case. There a creditor of Messrs. K., the owners of a British ship, obtained in Louisiana a judgment against them, under which their interest in the ship, and no more, was sold under a process exactly analogous to our *fieri facias*. There could be no doubt, if that had been all, that the Bank of Liverpool, which held a valid mortgage on the ship, might have taken possession of it as against the purchasers just as much as against the judgment debtors, K. & Co. But the bankers in Liverpool had in Louisiana intervened and endeavoured to prevent the sale of their ship, and a judgment was pro-

(a) 9 East, 192.

(b) 29 L. J. Ch. 657; 32 L. J. Ch. 249; 1 H. & M. 195.

nounced against them, on the ground that the Courts in Louisiana wholly disregarded all rights acquired in England on an English ship, unless they were acquired in such a manner as to be valid in Louisiana. The contention before the Vice-Chancellor was that the purchaser of the ship and the bankers in Liverpool were privies to their judgment, and that, therefore, the purchaser was entitled to use it as an estoppel to preclude the bankers from setting up in an English court their English right, though the judgment proceeded on the ground that the English right was to be wholly disregarded. The Vice-Chancellor decided otherwise. We should be sorry to cast any doubt on a decision which *prima facie* seems to carry out justice and good sense; but all that it is necessary to say in the present case, and therefore all that we do say, is that no such point here arises. The judgment of the French Court decreeing the sale of the vessel was not, according to the view of the facts which we take, a judgment that only the interest of C., if any, in the ship should be sold, but that the particular ship itself should be sold. And finding no authority for saying that the purchaser, under the decree of a foreign Court having competent jurisdiction to decree the transfer, is to be responsible for any mistakes made by that Court either in law or fact, we think we ought to act on the reason given in *Hughes v. Cornelius* (a): 'We must not set them at large again, for otherwise the merchants would be in a pleasant condition.' In truth, the plaintiff asks an English Court to sit as a court of appeal from the French Court, which is not the province of an English Court." (b)

The principles laid down in *Castrique v. Imrie* (c) have been in no sense questioned, but in a more recent judgment the Common Pleas Division have held that there is one case where an error in law committed by a foreign Court may be corrected. The case referred to is where

Foreign judgment—error in law of Court pronouncing it.

(a) 2 Show. 232; 2 Sm. L. C. 830.

(b) *Castrique v. Imrie*, L. R. 4 H. L. (1870), 434-437.

(c) L. R. 4 H. L. 434.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

both parties admit that the foreign Court has wrongly interpreted its own law.(a) Where such an admission is made, either on the pleadings, special case, or otherwise, the Common Pleas Division held that there was no rule of comity and no principle on which they were called upon to give effect to the foreign judgment; though, strangely enough, Archibald, J., in delivering the decision referred to, expressed a doubt whether *Castrique v. Imrie* would not have compelled the Court to give effect to the foreign decree, if the mistake admitted had been a mistake in the law, not of the country to which the foreign tribunal belonged, but of a third distinct jurisdiction.(b) The correctness of *Meyer v. Ralli* can only rest upon the exceptional circumstance that the error of the foreign Court was admitted upon the special case before the Common Pleas Division.(c) The grounds and correctness of the foreign judgment were therefore not examined, nor is the case an authority for the proposition that they are examinable. It may be added that the French judgment impeached appears to have had the additional defect of having been founded on proceedings commenced without any actual summons served or notice in fact given to the defendants; nor does it clearly appear how far service of the summons at the bar of the procureur-impérial was so warranted by the position of the parties as to amount to constructive notice.(d)

It may therefore be assumed, from the enunciation of the law by Blackburn, J., in *Castrique v. Imrie*,(e) that the judgment of a foreign Court, if final,(f) is examinable for no error or mistake, except a mistake by which it gave

(a) *Meyer v. Ralli*, L. R. 1 C. P. D. 358.

(b) *Ibid.* pp. 370, 371.

(c) *Scott v. Pilkington*, 2 B. & S. 11, 41; *Bank of Australasia v. Nias*, 16 Q. B. 717; *Ricardo v. Garcias*, 12 Cl. & F. 368; *Castrique v. Imrie*, L. R. 4 H. L. 434.

(d) *Infrà*, p. 562.

(e) *Ante*, p. 554.

(f) *Frayes v. Worms*, 10 C. B. N. S. 149; *Plummer v. Woodburne*, 4 B. & C. 625. And a judgment which would not be a bar to further proceedings in the country where it was obtained, between the same parties, is not final: *In re Henderson, Nowion v. Freeman*, 37 Ch. D. 244; affirmed H. L. 59 L. J. Ch. 337; 15 App. Cas. 1.

itself jurisdiction, although by the principles of private international law, it would have had none. The earlier *dicta*,^(a) to the effect that a foreign judgment will be reviewed for any error in private international law, or for any violation of natural justice, would seem, upon examination of the authorities, strictly applicable only to this point. An error in jurisdiction is the only error which a foreign Court is allowed to detect and set right.^(b)

The strongest modern decisions in favour of the theory that no foreign judgment manifestly opposed to natural justice is to be enforced by an English Court are all of earlier date than *Castrique v. Imrie*, and must be taken subject to the principles followed in that case. The condition, indeed, on which a foreign judgment shall be accepted here, as stated by Lord Ellenborough in *Buchanan v. Rucker*,^(c) namely, that it should appear on the face of it consistent with reason and justice, is said by Blackburn, J., in *Schibsby v. Westenholz*, to be mere declamation. It may be remarked, however, that in the case of *Liverpool Marine Credit Company v. Hunter*,^(d) which was not referred to or cited in *Castrique v. Imrie*, it was intimated by Lord Chelmsford that, when there had been "a total disregard of the comity of nations," an English Court would be justified in disregarding a judgment "so fraught with injustice;" and similar expressions were used by Lord Hatherley in the same case in the court of first instance: "If, in examining a judgment, as we are at liberty to do, we find on the face of it that a course of procedure has been adopted which is inconsistent with natural justice, then this Court will not give effect to the decisions and to the authority which it would otherwise

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

Foreign judgment—inconsistent with natural justice.

(a) 2 Sm. L. C. 448; Westlake, § 388.

(b) The fact, however, that a foreign judgment has been obtained without due notice to the defendant is equivalent to a wrongful assumption of jurisdiction. See the observations of Blackburn, J., upon *Buchanan v. Rucker*, in *Castrique v. Imrie*, *ante*, p. 453; *Ferguson v. Mahon*, 11 A. & E. 179; *Reynolds v. Fenton*, 3 C. B. 187; *Copin v. Adamson*, L. R. 9 Ex. 345; *Schibsby v. Westenholz*, L. R. 6 Q. B. 155.

(c) *Buchanan v. Rucker*, 1 Camp. 63.; S. C. 9 East, 192; *Schibsby v. Westenholz*, L. R. 6 Q. B. 155, 160.

(d) L. R. 3 Ch. 479, 484; S. C. L. R. 4 Eq. 62.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

be perfectly willing to recognise." This is no doubt strong language, but the very next paragraph shows what was in Lord Hatherley's mind, and that his view can really be reconciled with the theory of foreign judgments already deduced from *Castrique v. Imrie*: "It sometimes happens, for instance, that foreign Courts proceed to judgment in the absence of the party against whom proceedings are taken, or after inadequate notice of trial."^(a) It is plain that this could only have been said in contemplation of such cases as *Buchanan v. Rucker*,^(b) as to which it was expressly said in *Castrique v. Imrie* that the judgment of a foreign Court could be reviewed, not because it had made a mistake in law, but because it had acted without jurisdiction.^(c) It may be added in conclusion on this part of the subject, that although it is necessary that the foreign Court should have had jurisdiction, it is not necessary, in suing on a foreign judgment, to allege that this requisite has been complied with.^(d)

Notice to the
defendant.

Closely akin to the question of jurisdiction, with regard to which it has thus been shown that a foreign judgment has been declared by a consensus of authorities to be examinable, is that of *notice to the defendant*. The fact that no notice, or no sufficient notice, was given to the defendant of the proceedings on which the judgment was founded may be an incident, of course, of the want of jurisdiction referred to, or an element of fraud—the presence of fraud being, as has been stated, sufficient of itself to deprive a judgment so obtained of all validity. Thus, if a defendant is not resident in nor a subject of a foreign country, nor present within its territorial limits, and has no notice of an action brought against him in its tribunals, it is plain

(a) *Liverpool Marine Credit Co. v. Hunter*, L. R. 4 Eq. 62, 68.

(b) 9 East, 192; *ante*, p. 556.

(c) On this subject *cf.* also the judgment of the Exchequer Chamber in *Cammell v. Sewell*, 5 H. & N. 728. Other cases in point are *Cavan v. Stewart*, 1 Stark. 525; *Obicini v. Bligh*, 8 Bing. 335; *Frankland v. M'Gusty*, 1 Knapp, 274; *Baring v. Clagett*, 3 B. & B. 215; *Pollard v. Bell*, 8 T. R. 444; *Bolton v. Gladstone*, 2 Taunt. 85; *Price v. Dewhurst*, 8 Sim. 279; *Paul v. Roy*, 15 Beav. 440.

(d) *Robertson v. Struth*, 5 Q. B. 941; *Barber v. Lamb*, 8 C. B. N. S. 95.

that the absence of notice is merged, so to speak, in the absence of jurisdiction, which would be amply sufficient to invalidate the judgment, even if notice was in fact given. But if a defendant is subject to the foreign jurisdiction, either by domicile or submossin, and, according to the older opinions, even by nationality, he is of course subject to its laws; and though he has no *actual* notice of an action commenced against him in its tribunals, and may not have been served with any writ or process, he may have had *constructive* notice which will satisfy those laws, and be accepted by foreign tribunals, as sufficient. If those laws, for instance, provide that notice may be effected on an absent defendant by nailing a copy of the declaration on the court-house door,(a) or by service at the office of a public officer,(b) or by any other notice in law which cannot be said to be notice in fact, those who are properly subject to those laws will be bound by them, and no other; for, as Lord Ellenborough said in *Buchanan v. Rucker*, they can never be intended for or applied to persons who, for aught that appears, were never present within or subject to the jurisdiction. This subjection or submission to the jurisdiction, as has been already implied, does not depend solely upon the domicile or residence of the defendant, but may be inferred from his acts, where they show an intention to submit, for the purposes of a particular transaction, to the foreign law and the methods of service which it adopts. Such a submission has been implied where a person has joined a foreign company, the statutes or articles of association of which contained special provisions authorising constructive notice of process or action by something which would not or might not be notice in fact:(c) but it appears not to be sufficient that the law of the country to which the foreign company belongs should contain such provisions, if the rules or articles of the company

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

(a) *Buchanan v. Rucker*, 1 East, 192.

(b) *Schibbey v. Westenholz*, L. R. 6 Q. B. 155.

(c) *Copin v. Adamson*, L. R. 9 Ex. 345; *Bank of Australasia v. Harding*, 9 C. B. 661; 19 L. J. C. P. 345; *Vallée v. Dumerque*, 4 Ex. 290; 28 L. J. Ex. 398.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.Jurisdiction
and notice to
defendant.

itself do not repeat or adopt them.(a) So, the acceptor in a foreign country of a bill drawn and payable there, though not subject to the jurisdiction by domicile, nationality, or residence, was held to have submitted himself to it in an action on the bill itself, so as to be bound by a judgment obtained in the foreign tribunal without actual notice or service to the defendant, but in compliance with the requirements of the foreign law as to service and notice.(b) In the more recent case of *Schibsy v. Westenholtz*,(c) which has been already referred to, a foreign judgment was held invalid on the ground that the defendants were not subject to the jurisdiction by residence, transient presence, or any other reason, and that there therefore existed nothing which imposed upon them any duty to obey the obligation which the judgment created. In that case, though no personal service of process or summons had been effected on the defendants, notice had been in fact received by the defendants through the French consul in the country where the defendants resided, service having been effected in accordance with the French law at the office of the procureur impérial. The defendants had, therefore, notice of process in the eye of the foreign law, and notice in fact; but they were not subject to the jurisdiction, and therefore the question of notice became immaterial, as there was no foundation for the action at all. In *Reynolds v. Fenton* (d) a plea alleging that the defendant had received no formal notice, by service of process or otherwise, of the action, was held bad; but in that case it was not alleged that the defendant was not subject, by domicile or otherwise, to the jurisdiction, or even that he had not in fact knowledge and notice of the proceedings. The *dicta*, therefore, to be found in the course of the argument, to the effect that the question for the Court was whether the judgment was obtained contrary to natural justice, and that this was not shown by the plea, are sufficiently justified by the meagre-

(a) Per Amphlett and Pigott, BB. (Kelly, C.B., *dissentiente*), in *Copin v. Adamson*.

(b) *Meus v. Thellusson*, 8 Ex. 638.

(c) L. R. 6 Q. B. 155; *Godard v. Gray*, *ibid.* p. 139. Followed in *Voinet v. Barrett*, 54 L. J. Q. B. 521.

(d) 3 C. B. 187.

ness of its allegations. It is true that in *Ferguson v. Mahon*,^(a) decided before the case last cited, a similar plea was held good, the judgment sued on being an Irish one, but there the question of jurisdiction by general subjection does not appear to have been disputed or suggested to the Court, the sole point being whether the Irish proceedings were regular. Lord Denman said that the question was whether the judgment passed under such circumstances as to show that the Court had properly jurisdiction over the party; and when it appeared that the defendant had never received notice of the proceeding, or been before the Court, it was impossible to allow the judgment to be made the foundation of an action in England. It will be observed that in this case the plea was construed as amounting to an allegation that the defendant had neither received notice in fact of the proceedings, nor constructive notice according to the regulations of a law to which he was properly subject, and the decision must not be viewed as any authority for supposing that knowledge or notice in fact are absolutely necessary, if the defendant is subject or has submitted himself to the local law, and that local law provides a substitute or equivalent for such knowledge or notice. This subjection is, in fact, the test of jurisdiction in the eye of the English law; which, as pointed out by Westlake,^(b) recognises the competence of the *forum rei*, certainly by domicile or residence, if not by allegiance also.^(c) And it has already been stated that a defendant who "voluntarily appears" in a foreign action is taken as having submitted himself to the jurisdiction, and is consequently bound by the judgment pronounced by the foreign Court; although his motive in appearing may have been only the desire to protect property belonging to himself which was within the jurisdiction or reach of the foreign Court.^(d)

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

(a) 11 A. & E. 179. See also *Cowan v. Braidwood*, 1 M. & G. 882; 2 Scott, N. R. 138; *Douglas v. Forrest*, 4 Bing. 686; *Smith v. Nicolle*, 5 N. C. 208; 7 Scott, 147; *Guinness v. Carroll*, 1 B. & Ad. 459.

(b) Priv. Int. Law, § 380. (c) *Douglas v. Forrest*, 4 Bing. 686, 703.

(d) *Rousillon v. Rousillon*, 14 Ch. D. 351; *Voinet v. Barrett*, 54 L. J. Q. B. 521, affirmed 55 L. J. Q. B. 39; *De Cosse Brissac v. Rathbone*, 30 L. J. Ex. 238, and *ante*, p. 548.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

Error in fact.

Foreign judgment—when examinable.

It has thus been seen that error in law, whether domestic, foreign, or international, is not in itself a ground on which a judgment can be reviewed in a foreign Court, unless such error involve an assumption of jurisdiction in violation of ordinary international principles, or the Court pronouncing the judgment has proceeded without due notice against a party who is neither bound nor has consented to accept any substitute for notice in fact which the Court may have deemed sufficient. So far as these requirements are based upon natural justice, the *dicta* that a foreign judgment contrary to natural justice cannot be recognised may be supported, but there seems no ground for extending them further. Error in law having thus been disposed of, error in fact, as a ground for impeaching a foreign judgment, must next be considered; and as to this it may be said shortly that a foreign judgment, both in respect of the issues of fact found and the grounds on which the findings were arrived at, is now admitted to be conclusive.^(a) On this point, however, there has long been a conflict of opinion, and the question has in fact been so involved with the alleged right to examine foreign judgments on other grounds, which has just been discussed, that it is not easy to distinguish the decisions strictly applicable to it. The authorities in opposition to the now accepted opinion, that a foreign judgment is conclusive as to the facts on which it pronounces, will first be recapitulated.

It was stated by Eyre, C.J., in *Phillips v. Hunter*,^(b) that a foreign judgment, though it cannot be examined under ordinary circumstances by an English court, yet it is so examinable when the party who claims the benefit of it applies to an English Court to enforce it; and that under such circumstances it is treated as matter in *pais*, as consideration *prima facie* sufficient to raise a promise. It may be pointed out at once, however, that this distinction has received no modern recognition, and that the

(a) *Godard v. Gray*, L. R. 6 Q. B. 139, 149, and *infra*.

(b) 2 H. Bl. 410.

theory of a foreign judgment being merely *prima facie* evidence of a promise supported by consideration, is now exploded. "It is difficult to understand," says Blackburn, J., "how the common course of pleading is consistent with any notion that the judgment was only evidence. If that were so, every count on a foreign judgment must be demurrable on that ground. The mode of pleading shows that the judgment was considered, not as merely *prima facie* evidence of that cause of action for which the judgment was given, but as in itself giving rise, at least *prima facie*, to a legal obligation to obey that judgment and pay the sum adjudged. This may seem a technical mode of dealing with the question, but in truth it goes to the root of the matter. For if the judgment were merely considered as evidence of the original cause of action, it must be open to meet it by any counter evidence negating the existence of that original cause of action." (a)

In *Houlditch v. Donegal*, (b) which is perhaps the strongest authority in favour of the liability of foreign judgments to review, Lord Brougham expressed his opinion in very plain terms that a foreign judgment may be given in evidence, and made the subject of proceedings in another court or country, "but that it may be met by contrary evidence, and the subject-matter of the judgment is liable to be inquired into. . . . In my judgment, it has always hitherto been recognised in Westminster Hall that the judgments of foreign Courts are traversable, may be averred against, and are only *prima facie* evidence in actions to support which they are given in evidence." (c) The language of the same learned judge in *Don v. Lippman* (d) is in effect to the same purpose, inasmuch as he there cites authorities to show that English Courts

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.(a) *Godard v. Gray*, L. R. 6 Q. B. 139, 149.(b) 8 Bligh, N. R. 301. It is noticeable that the summary procedure to obtain judgment given by Order xiv., under the Judicature Acts, has been held to be applicable to an action on a foreign judgment: *Grant v. Easton*, 13 Q. B. D. 302; and cf. *Hodgson v. Baxter*, E. B. & E. 884.

(c) 8 Bligh, N. R. pp. 340, 346. This judgment is cited to illustrate the growth of the present theory, though it must be regarded as overruled.

(d) 5 Cl. & F. 1, 20, 21, citing *Fraser v. Sinclair*, Morr. 4543.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

Foreign judgment—conclusive as to facts.

regard a foreign judgment only as *prima facie* evidence of a debt; and in *Houlditch v. Donegal* other authorities were referred to, showing that the opinions of Lord Mansfield, Buller and Bayley, JJ., (a) coincided with the view he then took of the subject. In *Galbraith v. Neville* a resolution of the House of Lords was cited, which declared that a judgment of the Supreme Court of Jamaica ought to be received as evidence, *prima facie*, of the debt for which it had been given, and that it lay upon the defendant to impeach the justice thereof, or to show the same to have been irregularly or unduly obtained. (b) This *dictum* was expressly followed by Best, C.J., in *Arnott v. Redfern*, but, as is pointed out in the note to the *Duchess of Kingston's Case*, by the authors of Smith's Leading Cases, it was only adopted to the extent of admitting a foreign judgment as at all events *prima facie* evidence. (c) The point there was not whether a foreign judgment could be contradicted on a question of fact, but whether, if uncontradicted, it was sufficient to establish a cause of action.

The foregoing are the principal authorities to be found for the theory, now undoubtedly exploded, that foreign judgments, properly obtained, are *prima facie* evidence only of the facts to which they relate. There are, on the other hand, abundant contemporaneous *dicta* in favour of regarding them as conclusive, which recent authorities render it unnecessary to examine in detail. (d) In 1845 it was stated by Lord Campbell in the House of Lords that, at common law, foreign judgments, between the same parties and on the same matters, were evidence only, but

(a) *Walker v. Witter*, 1 Dougl. 1; *Galbraith v. Neville*, 1 Dougl. 5; *Tarleton v. Tarleton*, 4 M. & S. 20.

(b) H. L. 4th March, 1871, cited in the *Duchess of Kingston's Case*, 11 Harg. St. Tr. 122; see also per Lord Mansfield in *Moses v. Macfarlane*, 2 Burr. 1005.

(c) 2 Sm. L. C. 822 (7th ed.).

(d) *Boucher v. Lawson*, Cas. temp. Hardwicke, 89; *Kennedy v. Cassitis*, 2 Swanst. 326, n.; *Galbraith v. Neville*, 1 Dougl. 5 (per Lord Kenyon); *Tarleton v. Tarleton*, 4 M. & S. 21 (per Lord Ellenborough); *Martin v. Nicolls*, 3 Sim. 458; *Smith v. Nicolls*, 5 Bing. N. C. 221; *Ferguson v. Mahon*, 11 A. & E. 179.

that they had been held to be conclusive in a Chancery case by Vice-Chancellor Shadwell.(a) The cause then before the House of Lords was an appeal from the same judge, but Lord Campbell in his judgment drew no distinction between Common Law and Equity on this question. "A foreign judgment," he says, "may be pleaded as *res judicata*, because the foreign tribunal has clearly jurisdiction over the matter; and both parties having been regularly brought before the foreign tribunal, and that tribunal having adjudged between them, I think that such a judgment would be a bar to a subsequent suit in this country for the same cause." In this judgment a sounder distinction than that between Equity and Common Law is in fact indicated. There is an important difference between the position of a plaintiff who seeks by action to enforce a judgment which he has obtained from a foreign tribunal, and that of a defendant who claims the protection here of a foreign judgment already given in his favour. In the latter case, as Story points out, the party who has been defeated abroad, after a fair hearing by a competent Court, has no right to institute a new suit elsewhere, and thus to bring the matter again into controversy. The other party is not to lose the protection which the foreign judgment gave him.(b) Accordingly, it was held, in more than one case, even by those who most strenuously urged the liability of foreign judgments to review when a plaintiff sought to enforce them here, that they were absolutely conclusive as to the facts involved in them and the grounds on which they rested, when pleaded in bar.(c) The state of the law with reference to this distinction was clearly expressed by Lord Romilly in 1857: "In the numerous authorities that bear on this subject, a distinc-

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

(a) *Ricardo v. Garcias*, 12 Cl. & F. 368, 384, 401; *Martin v. Nicolls*, 3 Sim. 458.

(b) Story, *Conflict of Laws*, § 598. As to pleading a foreign judgment pronounced *pendente lite*, as a defence arising after action brought, see *post*, p. 580.

(c) *Burrows v. Jemino*, 2 Str. 733, cited *Cas. temp. Hardwicke*, 87; *Boucher v. Lawson*, *Cas. temp. Hardwicke*, 80; *Tarleton v. Tarleton*, 4 M. & S. 20; and see especially per Eyre, C.J., in *Phillips v. Hunter*, 2 H. Bl. 402, 410.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

tion is also taken between the cases where the foreign judgment is brought before the cognizance of an English Court upon an application by the successful party to enforce and obtain the fruits of it against the defendant, and those cases where the defendant here sets up the foreign judgment as a bar to the proceedings instituted by the person who has failed against the same defendant with reference to the same subject-matter. In *Phillips v. Hunter*, Eyre, C.J., considered that distinction to rest upon this principle: that as, in the former case, the judgment is submitted voluntarily to the Court, the question arises, whether it is sufficient as a consideration to raise a promise, and that thereupon it must be examined as all other considerations for promises are examined, and that evidence of the foreign law is admissible to show that the judgment was or was not warranted; but that it is otherwise in the case of a defence; that the party living abroad is not entitled to sue the successful defendant again in another country for the same subject-matter, but that the protection of a foreign judgment is complete everywhere, as well as in the place where it was pronounced. This distinction has certainly not been carried out to the extent laid down by Eyre, C.J.; still it is a distinction which has so much authority to support it that it must be regarded, at least to some extent, in considering the value of a foreign judgment here.”(a)

So far as regards the liability of a foreign judgment for review on the facts, it has been already intimated that this distinction need no longer be regarded. In *Henderson v. Henderson* (b) it was clearly laid down by Lord Denman that the principle of English law which assumed the judgment of a foreign Court to be in accordance with justice, “steered clear of an inquiry into the merits of the case upon the facts found; for whatever constituted a defence in that court ought to have been pleaded there.” Judgment was accordingly given for the plaintiff, who was

(a) *Reimers v. Druce*, 23 Beav. 149, 150, per Lord Romilly, M.R.

(b) 6 Q. B. 288, 298 (1844).

suing on a judgment obtained in Newfoundland, and had demurred to the defendant's pleas alleging that the case there had been wrongly decided upon the facts. So in 1854, in *Bank of Australasia v. Nias*,^(a) which was an action brought to enforce a colonial judgment, the defendant pleaded certain pleas denying the promises upon which the original action was brought, and also alleging that these promises were obtained by the fraud and covin of the plaintiffs. It was held by Lord Campbell, delivering the judgment of the Queen's Bench, that these pleas were bad, and that the facts alleged by them were not to be re-tried in an English court. "The pleas demurred to," said the Chief Justice, "must now be taken to have been in due manner decided against the defendant. . . . It seems contrary to principle and expediency for the same questions to be again submitted to a jury in this country." Nor is the fact that the judgment on which the action was brought was a colonial judgment, subject to review by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, of any importance with regard to the decision on this point. It is suggested by the judgment that there are even greater difficulties in the way of impeaching the competence or integrity of a colonial Court than of a foreign one from which no appeal lay to a British Court; but this refers rather to cases where want of jurisdiction or fraud is imputed, and not to those where it is sought to re-try a question of fact already settled by a foreign tribunal; nor has any such distinction as that suggested between a judgment obtained in a British colony, and a foreign judgment proper, been recognised in modern cases.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.
CAP. XI.

Judgments.

On the authorities above cited, the question whether a foreign judgment can be impeached as erroneous upon the merits came before the Court of Exchequer in 1861, the plaintiff, as in most of the cases, bringing his action on the judgment which it was sought to review, but it was held that the question was no longer open.^(b) It was

(a) 16 Q. B. 717, 736; and see *Bank of Australasia v. Harding*, 9 C. B. 661. (b) *De Cossé Brissac v. Rathbone*, 6 H. & N. 301; 30 L. J. Ex. 238.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

suggested by Martin, B., in that case that, though the Courts of first instance were concluded by the authorities, the point might possibly be reconsidered in a court of error, but that course was not adopted; and in *Godard v. Gray* (a) the present law on the subject was laid down by Blackburn, J., in even less equivocal terms. "The decisions seem to us to leave it no longer open to contend, unless in a court of error, that a foreign judgment can be impeached on the ground that it was erroneous on the merits, or to set up as a defence to an action on it, that the tribunal mistook either the facts or the law. . . . The defendant can no more set up as an excuse, that the judgment proceeded on a mistake as to English law, than he could set up as an excuse that there had been a mistake as to the law of some third country incidentally involved, or as to any other question of fact."

Conclusive-
ness of foreign
judgment.

The earlier theory, therefore, indicated in *Phillips v. Hunter* (b) and other cases, that a foreign judgment was examinable when it was sought to enforce it, but conclusive when a defendant sought its protection, and the distinction between these two modes of bringing such a judgment into question may be regarded as having given way to this simpler principle—that a foreign judgment is not examinable at all in either of these two cases, except where it is sought to prove a wrongful assumption of jurisdiction by the tribunal which pronounced it, or a procedure without notice to the person affected by it—the required notice being not necessarily notice in fact, if the defendant is bound or has consented or submitted to accept anything less as a substitute. It will be seen that this degree of validity was given from the first to judgments relied on by way of defence; and it would appear from the more recent cases, which have been cited above, that a foreign judgment, when made a ground of action, is entitled to equal respect. It has been said, nevertheless, that a judgment obtained abroad, pending a general administration of the debtor's estate in England,

(a) L. R. 6 Q. B. 139, 150.

(b) 2 H. Bl. 402.

will be treated by the English Court as only *prima facie* evidence of the debt. It does not, appear, however, that this point was essential to the decision.(a)

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

Satisfied
judgment
pleaded in
answer to
further action
by same
plaintiff.

The cases hitherto mentioned have been either instances of a plaintiff successful abroad, attempting to enforce his judgment here, or of a defendant, successful abroad, attempting to use the foreign judgment in his favour as a protection. The case may be supposed, however, of a plaintiff who has obtained a foreign judgment in his favour, but for a less amount than he conceives to be due to him, and who therefore claims to sue in an English court upon his original cause of action. That he can sue upon his original cause of action has been already stated, inasmuch as there is no merger of such original cause in a foreign judgment,(b) but the judgment, if *satisfied*, may nevertheless be pleaded in bar of the claim as a satisfaction.(c) It may be more correct to say that in such a case the amount actually paid in accordance with the foreign judgment may be pleaded as payment, the plaintiff being estopped by the judgment itself from showing that more was in fact due. Unless such an estoppel arose, the plea would of course be defeated by showing a claim for a larger amount, on the principle that payment of part is no satisfaction of the whole.(d) The position of the parties is in fact analogous to that occupied by plaintiff and defendant who have chosen to refer their differences to arbitration. Where a party has obtained the decision of an arbitrator in his favour, and his adversary has paid the amount, it would be manifestly contrary to reason and justice to allow the successful party to endeavour to obtain a better judgment in respect of the same subject-matter from some other tribunal.(e)

(a) *Re Boyse, Crofton v. Crofton*, 15 Ch. D. 591.

(b) *Smith v. Nicolls*, 5 Bing. N. C. 208; *Hall v. Odber*, 11 East, 124; *Kelsall v. Marshall*, 1 C. B. N. S. 241; *Castrique v. Behrens*, 30 L. J. Q. B. 163; *Barber v. Lamb*, 8 C. B. N. S. 95.

(c) *Barber v. Lamb*, 8 C. B. N. S. 95.

(d) *Cumber v. Wane*, 1 Sm. L. C. 341, and cases there cited.

(e) *Per Erie, C.J.*, 8 C. B. N. S. 100.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

*Judgments.*Judgments
in rem con-
clusive as
against
strangers.(ii.) *Foreign Judgments in rem.*

The consideration of the present subject has hitherto been confined to foreign judgments against the person, which are of course, notwithstanding some ambiguous expressions to the contrary, (a) only entitled to recognition as creating an obligation in proceedings between the same parties or privies; nor will a foreign judgment *in personam* be enforced in England by proceedings *in rem*. (b) Where the litigants are not the same, such a judgment is plainly *res inter alios acta*, and is not, except under very special circumstances, admissible in evidence at all. (c) There is, however, another class of judgments which is entitled to wider recognition, though it may be sometimes difficult to decide to which class a particular judgment belongs. A judgment *in rem*, or a decree which changes or settles the ownership of immovable or movable property, is, subject to certain conditions as to the jurisdiction of the Court, conclusive not only against the parties to the original action, but as against all the world. (d) That the principle which allows a foreign judgment to be impeached for fraud (e) applies to judgments *in rem* with the same certainty as to judgments *in personam* is of course indisputable; (f) but in the absence of fraud, the only requisite necessary to the validity and conclusiveness of a foreign judgment *in rem* is that it should have been pronounced by a competent Court having actual jurisdiction over the subject-matter. (g) The necessity of jurisdiction as a foundation

(a) *Tarleton v. Tarleton*, 4 M. & S. 21; *Houlditch v. Donegal*, 8 Bligh, N. R. 301, 341.

(b) *The City of Mecca*, 6 P. D. 106; 49 L. J. Adm. 17.

(c) *Castrique v. Imrie*, L. R. 4 H. L. 427. For estoppel through privies in blood, law, or estate, by judgments, see note to *Duchess of Kingston's Case*, 2 Sm. L. C. 793 (7th ed.).

(d) Per Blackburn, J., *Castrique v. Imrie*, L. R. 4 H. L. 414.

(e) *Ante*, p. 552; *Ochsenbein v. Papelier*, L. R. 8 Ch. 695; *Abouloff v. Oppenheimer*, 10 Q. B. D. 295.

(f) *Shand v. Du Boisson*, L. R. 18 Eq. 283; *Messina v. Petrocchiano*, L. R. 4 P. C. 144, 157.

(g) *The Flod Oyen*, 8 T. R. 270; *Havelock v. Rockwood*, 8 T. R. 276; *Donaldson v. Thompson*, 1 Camp. 429; *Oddy v. Bovi*, 7 T. R. 523.

for every judicial act has already been laid down with respect to judgments generally; it being indispensable, adopting the words of Story,^(a) to establish that the Court pronouncing the judgment should have had lawful jurisdiction over the cause, over the thing, and over the parties. In ordinary actions and judgments *in personam* the necessity of jurisdiction over any particular thing does not arise. The decision of a tribunal between two parties, in personal actions, though in general binding between parties and privies, does not affect the rights of third parties. If in execution of the judgment in such an action process issues against the property of one of the litigants, and some particular thing is sold as being his property, the rights of third persons are in no way affected. The tribunal had neither jurisdiction to determine, nor did it determine, anything more than that the litigant's property should be sold, and it does not do more than sell his interest, if any, in the property seized in execution. It is constantly seen in the English common law courts, that where the sheriff has seized and sold a particular chattel under a *fiери facias* against A., B. may set up a claim to that chattel, notwithstanding the sale, either against the sheriff or the purchaser from the sheriff. And if this may be done in the courts of the country where the judgment was pronounced, it follows of course that it may be done in a foreign country.^(b) But when the tribunal has jurisdiction to determine not merely on the rights of the parties, but also on the disposition of a particular thing, and does in the exercise of that jurisdiction direct that the thing itself, and not merely the interest of any particular person in it, be sold and transferred, the case is very different.^(c) In such a case the judgment is not *in personam*, but *in rem*; and its adjudication on the *status* or ownership of that thing is, as has just been said, conclusive against all the world,

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

Judgments
in rem—
adjudication
on ownership.

(a) § 586.

(b) Per Blackburn, J., in *Castrique v. Imrie*, L. R. 4 H. L. 414, 427.

(c) Per Blackburn, J., *Castrique v. Imrie*, 39 L. J. C. P. 354; L. R. 4 H. L. 414.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

binding "in all courts, and against all persons." (a) Such a judgment is not, however, even as between the parties, pleadable as an estoppel, (b) which is perhaps the only safe doctrine to be deduced from the decision in *Simpson v. Fogo*, a case which has been often cited as at variance with the principles which have been already enunciated. In *Simpson v. Fogo*, a creditor of the owners of a British ship obtained in Louisiana a judgment against them under which their interest in the ship, and no more, was sold under process of execution. The Bank of Liverpool, who had at the time a mortgage on the ship valid according to English law, intervened in the Louisiana proceedings, and a judgment was pronounced against them, on the ground that the law of Louisiana ignored all rights, even though acquired in England in an English ship, before the vessel had passed into the jurisdiction of Louisiana, that had not been acquired according to Louisiana law. It was held that the Bank of Liverpool were, nevertheless, not estopped from setting up their right as mortgagees in an English court; and inasmuch as the Louisiana Court did ultimately pronounce as to the ownership of and entire proprietary right in a ship which was at the time within its territorial jurisdiction, though that decision was not originally necessary to the suit, and would probably not have been given if the Bank of Liverpool had not intervened, it is difficult to see how the subsequent English decision can be reconciled with the theory of the conclusiveness of foreign judgments *in rem* which has just been stated, or with the more important cases in the superior English courts which have followed it. (c) The judgment was, no doubt, influenced by the consideration that the Louisiana Court had taken an entirely erroneous view, according to the principles of private international law, of their power to ignore a proprietary right which

(a) *Hobbs v. Henning*, 17 C. B. N. S. 791.(b) *Simpson v. Fogo*, 29 L. J. Ch. 657; *Hobbs v. Henning*, 17 C. B. N. S. 791.(c) *Cammell v. Sewell*, 3 H. & N. 640; 5 H. & N. 728; *Castrigue v. Imrie*, L. R. 4 H. L. 414; 39 L. J. C. P. 350.

had once well accrued; (a) a defect for which it has often been contended that a foreign judgment may be successfully impeached.(b)

Accepting, then, as incontrovertible the principle that a foreign judgment *in rem* is conclusive in all courts and against all parties, it remains to consider to what its conclusiveness has been held to extend. As to the facts directly adjudicated upon there can be no doubt; but there is often difficulty in applying the principle to facts inferentially decided, as well as to the grounds, expressed or implied, of the foreign decision. The safest expression of the English law on this subject appears to be that the truth of every fact, which the foreign court has found, either as part of its actual adjudication or as one of the stated grounds of that decision, must be taken to be conclusively established.(c) The judgment relied on must clearly be a judgment upon the point in controversy. Thus the judgment of a French Court of Admiralty, condemning a ship as prize, was held not to be conclusive as to the question of neutrality in an action against the underwriters, as the judgment itself did not state its foundation, and it was shown that it might have proceeded on another ground; viz., the violation of the French law by throwing overboard the ship's papers.(d) It was said in a subsequent case that, where no other possible ground of condemnation was shown to the court by evidence, the foreign condemnation was to be taken as conclusive that the ship was enemies' property;(e) but the truer doctrine would seem to be that the foreign Court will not be taken as having established any fact which it has not expressly found, and laid down in the judgment relied on.(f) No presumption as to the grounds

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

Judgment
in rem—
conclusive as
to adjudication
and stated
grounds of
decision.

(a) *Ante*, p. 242; *Cammell v. Sewell*, 5 H. & N. 728.

(b) But see *ante*, p. 559.

(c) *Hobbs v. Henning*, 17 C. B. N. S. 791, 825; 34 L. J. C. P. 117; *Kindersley v. Chase*, Park, Ins. 490; *Baring v. Clagett*, 3 B. & P. 214; *Bolton v. Gladstone*, 5 East, 160; *Blad v. Bamfield*, 3 Swanst. 60.

(d) *Bernardi v. Motteux*, 2 Dougl. 575.

(e) *Salucci v. Woodmass*, Park, Ins. 362.

(f) *Hobbs v. Henning*, 17 C. B. N. S. 791; 34 L. J. C. P. 117; *Fisher v.*

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.Judgment—
when not
examinable
for fraud.

upon which it proceeded will therefore be made by another tribunal. And even an express finding on a question of fact, not necessary to the actual decree, will be regarded as inconclusive before another tribunal. Thus, it not being necessary to show domicile within the jurisdiction, in order to obtain probate, (a) a finding as to domicile in a decree granting probate, is inconclusive on that point. (b)

It was said above that a foreign judgment *in rem* can, like any other, be impeached for fraud; (c) but it is clear that the fraud alleged must not be something which might have been raised as a defence in the foreign court upon the facts which were then before it. To impeach a foreign judgment on such grounds as that would be to allow a plea which ought to have been pleaded in the action on which the judgment was founded. (d) Thus an action will not lie for a conspiracy to obtain a foreign judgment *in rem* against the plaintiff, unless it appears at any rate that the plaintiff had no notice of the foreign action, or that the questions upon which the truth of his allegations of conspiracy rest were not raised or determined by it. (e)

(iii.) *Foreign Judgments on Status.*Judgments on
status of
persons.

How far a foreign judgment on a question of fact or law affecting the *status* of a person is analogous to a foreign judgment *in rem*, determining the ownership of a particular thing, is doubtful. It has been seen that a judgment *in rem* can only claim recognition abroad when pronounced by a tribunal which had jurisdiction over the subject-matter, the jurisdiction in that case being ascertained by the easily applied test of local situation. The question

Ogle, 1 Camp. 418; *Dagleish v. Hodgson*, 7 Bing. 504; and see per Lord Eldon in *Lothian v. Henderson*, 3 B. & P. 544.

(a) *Whicker v. Hume*, 7 H. L. C. 124, 156.

(b) *Concha v. Concha*, 11 App. Cas. 541.

(c) *Ante*, p. 552.

(d) *Westlake*, § 389; *Bowles v. Orr*, 1 Y. & C. Ex. 464; *Innes v. Mitchell*, 4 Drew. 102; *Castrique v. Behrens*, 30 L. J. Q. B. 163.

(e) *Castrique v. Behrens*, 30 L. J. Q. B. 163; *Bank of Australasia v. Nias*, 16 Q. B. 717.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

whether a particular tribunal has jurisdiction over the *status* of a particular person, depending as it does upon mixed considerations of nationality, domicile, and transient presence within certain territorial limits, is a far more complex one, and has already been discussed when treating of personal *status*. There is, however, one characteristic common to foreign judgments *in rem* and on *status*. If the latter are accepted at all, and so far as they are accepted by an English Court, the action in which they are relied on need not be brought for the same purpose, and on the same cause as the foreign suit in which they were originally pronounced.(a) Nor, according to the judgment of Lord Cranworth in the case cited, is it necessary that the action should be between the parties *in the same character*; inasmuch as the judgment is not relied on as showing that the demand is *res judicata* between two persons, but as the decision of a Court of exclusive jurisdiction on subject-matter within that jurisdiction, a decision which another Court is bound to receive without inquiry as to its conformity or non-conformity with the laws of the country where it was pronounced.(b) The same reasoning would seem to show that it need not be a judgment between the same parties at all, a principle which, with regard to judgments *in rem*, is well established.(c) And if a decree of divorce be considered as a judgment on *status*, which is probably the most correct way of regarding it, there can be no doubt that its validity, if recognised at all, will be recognised in suits other than those between the former husband and wife. Thus, the validity of a Scotch divorce was examined by the House of Lords in a suit brought by the children of a second marriage of the mother; and, if it had been held that the Scotch Court had had jurisdiction to pronounce it, there can be no doubt that it would have been accepted as conclusive.(d) Sentences of divorce, indeed, are oftenest

Divorce and
legitimacy.(a) *Dogliani v. Crispin*, L. R. 1 H. L. 301; 35 L. J. P. & M. 129.(b) S. C. 35 L. J. P. & M. 135. (c) *Ante*, p. 572.(d) *Shaw v. Gould*, L. R. 3 H. L. 55; *Shaw v. Attorney-General*, L. R. 2 P. & D. 156.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

called into question to prove or disprove the legitimacy of certain persons descended from one of the divorced pair. With regard to the competency of a foreign Court to decree a divorce, in the several cases where the original marriage was or was not celebrated within the jurisdiction, and where the parties were or were not domiciled there at the time of the marriage and of its dissolution, it is unnecessary to repeat what has been already said.^(a) But if the Court which decreed the divorce had jurisdiction to make such a decree, according to the estimate formed by English law of that jurisdiction, it is certain that such a foreign judgment will receive full recognition here as conclusive and binding, whether in a suit between the same parties or between strangers to the original decree.^(b) Judgments upon the *status* of a person are, in fact, regarded as closely akin to judgments upon the *status* or ownership of a thing. "The rule," says Erle, C.J., "making the decision of a Court which creates the *status* of a person or thing conclusive upon all persons as to the existence of that *status*, has been regarded as salutary. Sentences of nullity of marriage in the Ecclesiastical Courts, of forfeiture in the Exchequer, of settlement of paupers by the quarter sessions, and of prize in Prize Courts are examples."^(c) The word "creates," as used by Erle, C.J., in the passage quoted, must of course be taken to include the essential requisite of jurisdiction, without which there would be no creation which a foreign Court would recognise, either of *status* in such an action as is there referred to, or of a right and obligation in an action *in personam*.

(a) *Ante*, p. 85.

(b) *Roach v. Garvan*, 1 Ves. 157; *Kennedy v. Cassilis*, 2 Swanst. 313.

(c) *Hobbs v. Henning*, 17 C. B. N. S. 791, 823; see *Hughes v. Cornelius*, 3 Show. 232; 2 Sm. L. C. 773; and notes to *Doe v. Oliver*, *ibid.* 777. As to the recognition by Court of Chancery of a judgment of the Ecclesiastical Court in 1834 on the validity of a will, see *Douglas v. Cooper*, 3 My. & K. 378.

(iv.) *Lis alibi pendens*.PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

*Judgments.*Plea of *lis*
alibi pendens.

Closely analogous to the subject of foreign judgments is the plea of *lis alibi pendens*, as to which it is only necessary to say that it is a good defence only where the two Courts have concurrent jurisdiction under the same sovereign authority,(a) in which case, however, the statutory relation between the Courts, or the terms in which the sovereign authority is delegated, will in most instances modify the general principle. The amalgamation of the various English Courts into the High Court of Justice, by the operation of the Judicature Acts, 1873 and 1875, will deprive the subject of much practical interest in England for the future.(b) It may be added that the pendency of an action in an inferior court was never pleadable, in abatement or bar, to one in a superior.(c) And even where the two Courts have concurrent jurisdiction under the same sovereign authority, so that neither is, in the strict sense of the word, foreign to the other, the plea of *lis alibi pendens* was never held available where the one suit was originally *in personam* and the other *in rem*, though the subject-matter of the second suit might have been collaterally attached or affected by the first. The two suits must, to render the plea a good one, be in their nature the same.(d) The plea that another action is pending in a strictly foreign court for the same cause, when the tribunal before which the plea is raised has undoubtedly jurisdiction over the subject-matter, is in no case an available defence. "It would be no answer, even in abatement of the writ, that an action was pending here in an inferior court, and how in law or reason can it be that it is pending in a foreign court, when the action is in

Suit pending
in foreign
court.(a) *Ostell v. Lepage*, 5 De G. & S. 95, 105.(b) See on this subject, Comyn's Dig. tit. "Abatement," H 24; Bac. Abr. tit. "Abatement," M; *Mayor of London v. B.*, 3 Keb. 491; Freem. 401; Gilbert's Hist. of C. P. p. 254.

(c) 5 Co. 62 a; 2 Lord Raymond, 1102; Comyn's Dig. tit. "Abatement," H 24, 9.

(d) *Harmer v. Bell*, 7 Moo. P. C. 267, 286.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

no sense local?"(a) The authorities referred to show that the *dictum* of Lord Cottenham in *Wedderburn v. Wedderburn*, which has been cited for the opposite theory, cannot be regarded as law;(b) and it may now be taken as established that no decree or order of a foreign tribunal, and *à fortiori* no proceeding or suit pending there, can be pleaded in an English court, except a final and conclusive judgment, pronounced by a Court of competent jurisdiction.(c) It has been held, however, that the matter must have been *res judicata* in the foreign court at the time when the action was commenced in the English one; and the fact that there was at the commencement of the English suit a *lis alibi pendens* abroad, on which judgment was given in time to be pleaded in England, was not admitted as a defence in the latter suit.(d) In such a case it was said that the proper course for the party objecting to being harassed by two suits to take is to apply to the English Court to put the other litigant to his election, by compelling him to abandon one or the other of the suits.(e) But in a recent case Pearson, J., said that, however right the decision in *The Delta* may have been under the old practice, he was not satisfied, without a closer examination of the rules of court, that a defendant was not now at liberty to set up as *res judicata* a decision of the point at issue by a Court of competent jurisdiction during the process of the action.(f) Nor does there seem any reason for the distinction, the right of a defendant to plead a defence arising since action brought being now only a question of costs.(g) But the mere fact that an

(a) Per Pollock, C.B., in *Scott v. Seymour*, 1 H. & C. 219, 229; *Cox v. Mitchell*, 7 C. B. N. S. 55; *Ostell v. Lepage*, 5 De G. & S. 95, 105; *Bayley v. Edwards*, 3 Swanst. 703; *Maule v. Murray*, 7 T. R. 470; *Dillon v. Alvares*, 4 Ves. 357.

(b) *Wedderburn v. Wedderburn*, 4 My. & Cr. 585, 596.

(c) *Ante*, p. 567; *Ricardo v. Garcias*, 14 Sim. 265; S. C. 12 Cl. & F. 380, and cases cited at p. 389; *Frates v. Worms*, 10 C. B. N. S. 149; *Plummer v. Woodburne*, 4 B. & C. 625; *Smith v. Nicolls*, 5 N. C. 208; 7 Scott, 147.

(d) *The Delta, The Erminia Foscolo*, L. R. 1 P. D. 393.

(e) *The Caterina Chiappare*, L. R. 1 P. D. 368; *The Mali Ivo*, L. R. 2 A. & E. 356; *The Delta*, L. R. 1 P. D. 393, 404.

(f) *Houston v. Sligo*, 29 Ch. D. 448, 454. Cf. Order XXIV. rr. 1, 2, 3 (Judicature Acts).

(g) Judicature Acts, Order XXIV. rr. 1, 2, 3.

appeal is pending abroad against the foreign judgment does not deprive the judgment itself of the force of *res judicata* in an English court.(a)

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

With regard to the general question of restraining proceedings in a foreign tribunal, it is plain that an English Court can only take this course effectively when the litigant to be restrained is either also litigating before the English Court, or is domiciled within English jurisdiction. It has been already pointed out that in a proper case proceedings in a foreign court, even against foreign immovables, may be restrained;(b) and where an estate is being generally administered in England, there is no doubt that an English creditor can be restrained from proceeding before a foreign tribunal.(c) When such creditor, however, is domiciled abroad, and is not also proceeding, or withdraws from his proceedings, in the English court, an injunction would be ineffective, and will not be granted.(d) In the last case it was said that a foreign judgment so obtained could only be treated in England as *prima facie* evidence of the debt; though it does not appear that this *dictum* was essential to the judgment. As to the ordinary case of one of the parties to an action in England instituting proceedings at the same time before a foreign tribunal, it must be shown, in order to obtain the interference of an English Court, that the multiplicity of actions is vexatious. And the applicant does not satisfy the burden of proof by merely showing that there is a multiplicity of actions.(e) It is not vexatious to bring an action in each country where there are substantial reasons of benefit to the plaintiff.(f) The defendant applying for an injunction must show that the plaintiff could get no

(a) *Munro v. Pilkington*, 31 L. J. Q. B. 81; *Castrique v. Behrens*, 30 L. J. Q. B. 163.

(b) *Ex parte Rogers, In re Boustead*, 16 Ch. D. 665.

(c) *Graham v. Maxwell*, 1 Macn. & G. 71. Cf. *In re Queensland Merc. Co.*, W. N. 1888, p. 62.

(d) *In re Boyse, Crofton v. Crofton*, 15 Ch. D. 591.

(e) *Hyman v. Helm*, 24 Ch. D. 531, 537.

(f) *Peruvian Guano Co. v. Bockwoldt*, 23 Ch. D. 225, 230; *M'Henry v. Lewis*, 21 Ch. D. 202; 22 Ch. D. 397.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.

CAP. XI.

Judgments.

advantage whatever by the action abroad greater than he could get by the action in England.(a)

And when an action instituted in France involved the same questions between the same parties as an action in England, but the special relief sought by the French action could only be obtained in France, the Court of Appeal refused to stay the foreign suit.(b)

SUMMARY.

FOREIGN JUDGMENTS.

- p. 545. A foreign judgment *in personam*, though not a merger of the original cause of action, gives rise to a legal obligation to obey its decree, which may be enforced by action.
- pp. 546, 552. Foreign judgments may be impeached in an English court for a defect in the jurisdiction of the Court which pronounced them, or for the fraud of the litigant relying on them; but not for error of law or of fact (except an error in the law of the Court which pronounced it, admitted by the parties); nor on the merits.
- pp. 553, 564-574. The sufficiency of the notice given to the defendant by the foreign tribunal is included under the head of jurisdiction; and a defendant who voluntarily appears, although under protest, is bound by the judgment which follows.
- p. 560. If no fraud or defect in the jurisdiction is alleged, a foreign judgment *in personam*, final in the Court which pronounced it, is conclusive in every other Court between the same parties or privies, whether relied on by a plaintiff or defendant. But a foreign judgment *in personam* cannot be enforced here by proceedings *in rem*. And *quære* whether a foreign judgment is conclusive when obtained *pendente lite* in England.
- p. 571. Subject to the same qualifications, a foreign judgment *in rem* is conclusive, not only between the same parties or privies, but as against all the world, though not pleadable as an estoppel even between parties to the original action.
- p. 572.

(a) Per Brett, M.R., 24 Ch. D. at p. 538.

(b) *Baird v. Prescott*, 6 Times Law Rep. 231, March 10, 1890.

No presumption will be allowed as to the grounds on which it proceeded, but where those grounds are expressed it will be conclusive as to them, as well as with respect to the facts directly adjudicated upon, provided that they were necessary to the decree.

PART IV.
PROCEDURE.
CAP. XI.

p. 575.

A foreign judgment on *status* stands in the same position as a foreign judgment *in rem*, the question of the jurisdiction of the Court which pronounced it being decided by the ordinary rules applicable to the *status* of persons.

The rule that a foreign judgment, to be relied on, must be conclusive, operates to exclude the plea of *lis alibi pendens* when the prior suit is pending in a foreign court; and has been held under the old practice to exclude the plea of *res judicata* when the prior suit was pending in the foreign court when the action in which it is pleaded commenced; but *quære* whether this would be so under the present practice. The fact, however, that an appeal is pending against the judgment relied on does not affect its validity in a foreign court.

English litigants may be restrained in a proper case from proceeding in a foreign tribunal; and will in general be so restrained when the debtor's estate is being generally administered in England. In other cases, in order to obtain an injunction against proceedings before a foreign tribunal, it must be shown that the multiplicity of actions is vexatious; *i.e.*, that the foreign action can bring the plaintiff no relief that he could not obtain in the English suit.

CONTINUOUS SUMMARY.

PART I.—PERSONS.

Nationality.

NATIONALITY, according to the English Common Law, was p. 1. decided absolutely and once for all by the place of birth. Those who were born within the allegiance of the British Crown, and those only, were regarded throughout their lives as British subjects.

By the statutes previous to 33 & 34 Vict. c. 14 (25 pp. 2, 3. Edw. III. st. 2, 7 Anne, c. 5, s. 3, 4 Geo. II. c. 21, and 13 Geo. III. c. 21), the privileges of nationality were conferred on the descendants, up to and including the second generation of a natural-born British subject who were born abroad, the transmission of this statutory nationality depending upon the father alone.

By 33 & 34 Vict. c. 14, the restrictions on the capacities pp. 6-18. of aliens were abolished so far as the power of inheriting or otherwise taking British land was concerned, and statutory means were provided (superseding those which had formerly existed) for the naturalisation and denaturalisation of aliens in Great Britain, and of British subjects abroad, including the acquisition of political rights.

The nationality of a married woman follows that of her pp. 18, 19. husband, and the nationality of children follows that of the father, or of the mother if a widow. A married woman who becomes a widow may change her nationality under the provisions of 33 & 34 Vict. c. 14.

The Legislatures of British possessions and colonies may p. 18.

confer a limited British nationality, valid within their territorial limits.

pp. 9, 10.

On the cession or abandonment of territory, by conquest or otherwise, the nationality of the inhabitants is generally provided for by treaty; but in the absence of treaty provisions, will probably depend upon the voluntary transfer or retention of their domicil.

Domicil.

p. 22.

Domicil is that relation of an individual to a State or country which arises from residence within its limits as a member of its community. In ordinary language, that country is said to be the country of his domicil, and he is spoken of as domiciled within it.

p. 23.

Every individual is regarded by the law as domiciled in some one country at every period of his life, and can only be domiciled in one country at a time.

p. 23.

A domicil spoken of as the *domicil of origin* attaches to every individual at his birth. In the case of posthumous or illegitimate children, the domicil of origin is the domicil of the mother at the time of the birth; in all other cases it is regarded as derived from the father. (The possible cases in which the domicils of the father and mother may be different have been already mentioned.)

pp. 23, 24.

The domicil of the child continues through legal infancy to be that of the parent from which it was derived, and follows the changes of the latter. An infant who marries and changes its home must, for this purpose, be regarded as *sui juris*.

p. 24.

The domicil of an orphan becomes and follows that of its legal guardian. It is, however, doubtful whether a guardian by changing his own domicil can so alter that of the minor as to affect the right of succession to the minor's property, at any rate when there is a fraudulent or self-interested intention that it shall be so affected.

The domicil of origin adheres until a new domicil is acquired.

The domicile of origin is changed, in the case of a person pp. 24-36. *sui juris*, by a *de facto* removal to a home in a new country, with an *animus non revertendi* and an *animus manendi*; or in the case of a woman, by marrying a man whose domicile is different from her own.

A domicile which is not the domicile of origin, but has p. 25. been acquired, is lost by actual abandonment, *animo non revertendi*. Until a new domicile is acquired, the domicile of origin temporarily reverts.

When an acquired domicile has thus been divested, a pp. 29-36. new domicile is acquired by complete transit to a new country, and the establishment there, *animo manendi*, of a home.

The *animus manendi* or *non revertendi* is a question of p. 27. fact for the Court, as to which neither a declaration *ante litem motam*, nor an affidavit *post litem motam*, by the person whose domicile is in question, is conclusive, though all such statements are evidence to be taken into consideration.

The *animus manendi* will in certain cases be a pre- p. 31. sumption of law which will not admit contradiction.

The domicile of a married woman becomes and follows pp. 31, 32. that of her husband, but in the event of his death, of a divorce, or of a judicial separation, she becomes re-invested with the power of acquiring a new domicile of her own. The same result may probably be regarded as following from certain exceptional circumstances, such as desertion by the husband.

Domicil, for the purposes of succession to movable pp. 37, 38. property, testate or intestate, is further regulated by 24 & 25 Vict. c. 121. By this Act it is provided that, subject to conventions to be made with foreign States for its reciprocal application, British subjects dying in a foreign country shall be deemed, for all purposes of testate or intestate succession as to movables, to retain the domicile they possessed at the time of going to reside in such foreign country, unless they have resided in such foreign country for a year at least before the death, and shall

have made a formal written declaration of an intention to become domiciled there. Similar provisions are made with regard to the subjects of foreign States dying in Great Britain.

pp. 38-40. Domicil being a question of fact, it is not competent for individual States to enact restrictions upon, or facilities for, its acquisition; and such enactments should not, in the tribunals of other States, obtain recognition.

Capacity.

pp. 47-49. With regard to acts and contracts done or entered into in the country of the domicil, not relating to immovables, capacity is determined by the *lex domicilii*, and not by the *lex loci solutionis* or any other law.

pp. 47-50. With regard to acts and contracts in a place other than the country of the domicil, an English Court, at any rate a Court of first instance, will probably prefer the *lex domicilii* to the *lex loci* in all cases. In a purely mercantile contract the question has not arisen in modern times.

pp. 50, 51. Where there is no act or contract in any particular place to invite the competition of a *lex loci*, but the question is one of the mere *fact* of capacity, the decision of the law of the domicil will be accepted in preference to that of the *lex fori*; *e.g.*, for the purposes of succession.

pp. 52-54. But even though a personal incapacity, as defined by the foreign law of the domicil, be recognised by English law, the *status*, rights, and powers of the persons appointed by that foreign law to supplement that incapacity as guardians, tutors, curators, or committees, cannot claim or expect as a right a similar recognition. No such rights or powers extend beyond the jurisdiction of the law which created them.

pp. 53, 54. The creation of such rights and powers by a foreign law is nevertheless a fact to be taken into consideration by an English Court, which will protect or even be guided by those rights and powers where it may seem expedient.

The English Court claims jurisdiction to appoint guardians over all infants who are British subjects, wherever residing, and whoever may have the custody of the infants abroad, as well as of infants transiently present in England, whatever their domicil and nationality. PP. 54, 55.

The English Court claims jurisdiction in lunacy over all persons present in England, and in respect of persons absent from England, but having property here in need of protection. PP. 55, 56.

Where a person has been declared lunatic by a Court of competent jurisdiction abroad, the Court in England will administer the property of the lunatic in accordance with that law, at any rate where it is his *lex domicilii*. The title of a foreign curator to his property under such circumstances will be recognised, subject to the discretion of the Court. p. 57.

Legitimacy.

Legitimacy for purposes of succession to immovable property, including chattels real, in England is tested both by the English law as the *lex situs*, and by the *lex domicilii* of the inheritor, "Legitimacy" (so by the law of the domicil) alone is not sufficient; "it must be legitimacy *sub modo*—legitimacy, and being born in wedlock." p. 60.

Legitimacy for purposes of succession to movable property by devise is tested by the law of the domicil of the successor. pro p. 64.

Legitimacy for purposes of succession to movable property *ab intestato* is similarly tested by the law of the domicil of the successor. pro p. 63.

The law of the domicil of the successor which decides his legitimacy is the law of his domicil of origin, that is, in ordinary cases, his father's domicil. In cases of legitimisation *per subsequens matrimonium*, the law of the father's domicil both at the time of the birth and at the time of the subsequent marriage must admit of such legitimisation. p. 62.

Legitimacy for the purpose of estimating legacy and pp. 65, 66.

succession duty on movable property is decided by the same rules.

p. 65. . But a foreign law which gives the right of succession to natural children, who have been recognised in the lifetime of the father, does not confer upon them the *status* of legitimacy for purposes of succession by English law.

p. 61. (By the Scotch law, legitimacy for purposes of succession generally, other than succession to real estate, is referred to the law of the domicile—*i.e.*, the domicile of the father at the time of the birth. In cases of legitimisation *per subsequens matrimonium*, a change in the domicile of the father after the birth and before the marriage is immaterial. The law of the domicile at the time of the birth decides once for all whether the child's bastardy is indelible or provisional only. Such legitimisation, according to the law of domicile, will not, however, render a child born abroad, of a Scotchman by domicile and nationality, a natural-born British subject entitled, under 4 Geo. II. c. 21, to hold British land.)

Legitimacy for purposes other than succession under a will or *ab intestato* has not hitherto come in question, but the *dicta* point to the acceptance of the law of the domicile of the person on the point.

pp. 67, 98. But legitimacy by the law of the domicile will not in any case be accepted, either by Scotch or English law, if its acceptance involves the recognition by that law of the validity of a marriage which it regards as incestuous or criminal.

Marriage.

pp. 70–76. Marriage is governed, as to its *essentials*, by the law of the domicile of the parties; as to its *forms*, by the law of the place of celebration.

The law of the domicile of the parties is the proper law to decide whether the marriage can, by the use of any forms, ceremonies, or preliminaries, be effected.

The law of the place of celebration is the proper law to

decide what forms, ceremonies, or preliminaries shall be employed.

If the law of the matrimonial domicile is such that the marriage cannot be effected by obeying its directions, but can be effected by obtaining a dispensation from its prohibitions, the marriage cannot, in the absence of such dispensation, be legalised by the law of the place of celebration.

The law of any country may, and the English Royal Marriage Act does, not only prohibit certain persons from contracting marriage in England except on certain prescribed conditions, but refuse to recognise any marriage contracted by such persons elsewhere when these conditions have not been complied with. p. 82.

Marriage, to be recognised by an English Court, must be that which is recognised as marriage by Christendom, p. 78. and not a mere disguise for illicit intercourse or criminal incest.

Dissolution of Marriage.

Where a marriage has been celebrated in England, and the domicile of the parties is British, a foreign divorce purporting to dissolve it will in no case be recognised. pp. 85-88.

When the parties to such a marriage were domiciled abroad at the time of its celebration, and the law of the same continuing domicile purports to divorce them, the divorce will be recognised as valid by an English Court. p. 88.

The same principle would accord the same recognition to a foreign divorce granted by the law of the domicile, where the domicile of the parties had been English at the time of the marriage, and had been subsequently changed. p. 89.

Where a marriage has been celebrated abroad, an English Court will assume jurisdiction to dissolve it if it can be shown that the matrimonial domicile is English at the time of the application. pp. 90-93.

It is doubtful how far the jurisdiction will be asserted in the absence of English domicile. In *Niboyet v. Niboyet* pp. 94-97.

p. 97.

it was held that residence not amounting to domicile was sufficient, but the case was one where the residence would have amounted to domicile but for the consular character of the husband. In *Brodie v. Brodie* jurisdiction was assumed on "*bond fide* residence"; and in *Deck v. Deck* on continuing British allegiance. The last case would probably not be followed. So, it would seem, the Court may exercise its jurisdiction, notwithstanding the want of an English domicile, if the respondent submit by appearance, and taking practical steps in the cause, though a former submission in another cause is not sufficient.

Foreign Corporations, States, Sovereigns, and Ambassadors.

pp. 101, 102.

(i.) *Foreign Corporations.*—The artificial personalities or corporate bodies which are created by the municipal laws of foreign States are recognised in English courts, when their character is substantially the same as that of a corporation created by English law.

pp. 102-104.
104-109.

A foreign corporate body may therefore sue and be sued in England under its corporate name; and the provisions in the Rules under the Judicature Acts, for service of a writ of summons or notice thereof abroad, apply to these artificial as well as to natural persons.

p. 106.

Where a foreign corporation carries on business at a branch office in England, with a clerk or officer in the nature of a head officer there, whose knowledge would be the knowledge of the corporation, service of a writ may be effected on such officer. If there is no such officer in England, notice of the writ should be served on the head office of the corporation abroad.

pp. 107, 108.

The recognition accorded by English courts to foreign corporations does not, except as above stated, expose them to the operation of the English enactments regulating English corporations; unless, it seems, their creation proceeded from the laws of a jurisdiction subordinate to the British Crown.

A foreign corporation, though incapable of domicile in

the strict sense, may reside beyond the limits of the State which created it. Except perhaps for the purposes of pp. 112-120. jurisdiction and service of process, a foreign corporation resides only in the principal seat of its business. Such residence is a question of fact, in which the locality of its incorporation and registration, the seat of its governing body, and the place where its profits are made, realised, or remitted, are all elements to be considered.

Foreign corporations, when litigant in an English court, p. 121. occupy the same position with regard to the conduct of the action as natural persons, and may be compelled to make discovery and answer interrogatories by a proper representative.

(ii.) *Foreign States and Sovereigns*.—Foreign States, or pp. 122, 123. bodies politic created by international law, occupy a position analogous to that of foreign corporations. In the case of monarchical governments, the Sovereign may be regarded as a corporation sole, representing the State; in the case of democratic or republican governments, the State itself, under its international name or style, as a body politic, may be regarded as a corporation aggregate.

The sovereign power of a State, in either of these two pp. 124-127. cases, may sue in an English court under its *quasi*-corporate or politic name in respect of the public property and *chores in action* of the nation which it represents. The Sovereign, in the case of a monarchical government, may also sue in respect of his private rights and property as a private individual; but the practice has been hitherto not to give a Sovereign litigant, though successful, his costs.

Neither a personal Sovereign nor a body politic (or pp. 128-134. State) may be sued in an English court, unless the privilege of sovereignty has been waived, expressly or impliedly, by voluntary submission to the jurisdiction or otherwise.

But when a foreign Sovereign is also, in another capacity, pp. 130, 131. the subject of another sovereign State, he may be sued in the courts of that other State, if not in the courts of all States except his own, in respect of acts done by him in

that subject and private capacity ; though the *prima facie* presumption, with respect to all his acts, is that they were done by him in his character of Sovereign.

pp. 133, 136. No jurisdiction, whether by proceedings *in rem* or otherwise, will be asserted in an English court over the public property of a foreign Sovereign or State, though such property be within the territorial limits of English jurisdiction.

p. 139. A foreign Sovereign or State, when litigant in an English court occupies the same position, with respect to discovery and the other incidents of the suit, as a private individual.

pp. 138, 139. The sovereignty and independence of an alleged Sovereign or body politic are matters which an English court should know or ascertain judicially ; and evidence to prove these facts need not, it appears, be offered by the parties to the action.

pp. 140-142. Acts of State, authorised or ratified by a sovereign power, create no civil rights or liabilities.

pp. 142-144. (iii.) *Foreign Ambassadors*.—Foreign ambassadors or Ministers, with their families, officials, suites, servants, and attendants, are, by the fiction of *exterritorialité*, regarded as continuously resident in the State of which they are the representatives. Foreign ambassadors or Ministers are, by international law, exempt from being sued or impleaded for any cause whatever in the courts of the State to which they are accredited. There is no English authority expressly extending this immunity to the inferior members of the legation, or to their families, suites, and servants ; but it is so extended by writers on international law.

pp. 147, 152. A foreign ambassador or Minister does not lose this immunity, or waive his privilege, by engaging in trade ; though the statutory protection given to the servants of ambassadors or Ministers, and therefore by implication their Common Law immunity, is forfeited by such a course of action. The immunity may, however, be waived by appearing and pleading ; and a privileged person, by

p. 146.

taking such a course, places himself in the position of an ordinary litigant. The extent of this immunity, though not clearly defined by English precedents, is by writers on p. 143. international law treated as including all writs and processes of court, and all judicial restraints upon the time, movements, or person of those entitled to the privilege.

The rules of international law on this subject, adopted by the Common Law of England, have been amplified by p. 146. statute (7 Anne, c. 12); which declares all writs and processes, sued out against the person or goods of any foreign Minister or ambassador, or of any domestic servant of such ambassador or Minister, to be null and void. This statutory protection may be forfeited, in the case of the servant of an ambassador or Minister, by engaging in trade.

To be entitled to this statutory protection as the domestic servant of an ambassador or Minister, the claimant must be actually and *bona fide* in such service, and no colourable or collusive employment will do. The nature pp. 149-151. of the employment or service is in each case a question of fact; and proof that the claimant's name has been registered as such servant at the office of the Secretary of State, and thence transmitted to the office of the sheriff, is insufficient evidence of that fact.

PART II.—PROPERTY.

IMMOVABLE PROPERTY.

(i.) *Jurisdiction as to Real Property (including chattels real) situate Abroad.*

p. 159.

The jurisdiction over real or immovable property, abstracted from the acts and contracts of the persons who deal with it, belongs to the *forum situs* alone, which will administer the *lex situs* in exercising it.

And this general principle will prevent an action from being maintained in England for the possession of or property in foreign land, or discovery being obtained in aid of such action abroad, independently of any rule of procedure, such as those which formerly prevailed with respect to *venue*.

pp. 160-170.

But where a personal equity, resulting either from a trust or a contract over which an English Court has jurisdiction, and not excluded by the law of the *situs*, attaches to an individual who is before the English Court or can be brought before it, the English Court will indirectly affect foreign land by acting *in personam*, *i.e.*, upon the conscience of its own justiciable.

Thus, by the enforcement of such an equity, the title to the property in or the right to the possession of foreign land may be indirectly transferred.

p. 169.

The mere fact that a contract relates to foreign land, or to the rights that are incident to its possession, will not exclude the jurisdiction of the English Court, if the contract is one with which it is otherwise competent to deal; at any rate, unless it is shown that the Courts of the *situs* have already and properly assumed jurisdiction over the claim.

Where such an equity as that defined exists, the English Court will at its discretion restrain by injunction proceedings abroad with respect to the foreign land to which it relates. pp. 170, 171.

But it seems that where the equity is absolutely repugnant to the *lex situs*, the English Court will not enforce it, though it would have done so had the equity in question been merely non-existent by that law. p. 172.

There is no direct authority to show that the jurisdiction over torts to foreign land, which the English Courts were formerly prevented from assuming by the rules relating to *venue*, is extended by the abolition of those rules; but an action founded on such a tort, being for personal damages only, might on general principles be maintained here. pp. 174-177.

Service out of the jurisdiction in actions affecting land is governed by Order XI. r. 1 (Judicature Acts). p. 177.

(ii) *Nature and Incidents of Real or Immovable Property.*

The *lex rei sitæ* is entitled to determine what is, and what is not, real or immovable property. p. 179.

The *lex rei sitæ* may accordingly impress the character of personality upon the *res sita* for its own purposes (as for the payment of legacy), without abandoning its claim to regard the same *res sita* as realty or immovable property for the purposes of international law. The *lex rei sitæ*, in calling the *res sita* personalty, does not thereby convert it into movable personalty. Movables and personalty are not equivalent terms. pp. 180, 181.

The *lex rei sitæ* will generally prevail as to questions of limitation and prescription in their application to real or immovable property, inasmuch as these naturally arise only in the *forum rei sitæ*. There is some authority saying that the *lex rei sitæ* will also prevail when such questions arise in a foreign court; but among jurists there is some conflict of opinion on the point, the *lex fori* assert-

ing its claim to deal with the matter as pertaining to the remedy.

pp. 187-192.

The *lex rei sitæ* will determine the liability of real or immovable property for the debts of its deceased owner testate or intestate, and the obligation of the heir in respect of those debts. But this principle may be modified, (i.) by the rule that the construction of a will depends upon the law of the domicile of the deceased; (ii.) by a personal equity affecting the heir.

(iii.) *Transfer of Immovable Property inter vivos.*

p. 193.

The *lex situs* determines all questions relating to the transfer of real estate.

Thus (*inter alia*), it determines the capacity of the parties to the transfer.

[There is, however, little *direct* authority on this point, and jurists show a tendency to decide capacity on this, as on all other matters, by the *lex domicilii*.]

pp. 194, 195.

The formalities of the transfer, and the restrictions on the freedom of alienation, are similarly decided by the same law.

(iv.) *Succession to Immovable Property by Will.*

p. 196.

The *lex situs* decides the capacity of the testator to devise immovable estate (see, however, the qualification of the rule just stated as to the capacity to transfer *inter vivos*), the formalities of the testamentary instrument, and its operation upon the land which it affects to devise.

p. 197.

But where a testator intends and attempts to devise immovable estate by a will not effectual to do so by the *lex situs*, the heir of the immovable estate will not be permitted to take a bequest of movable personal estate under the will, and to defeat the same will as to the land. In such a case, he will be put to his election whether he will accept the will for all purposes or for none.

pp. 197, 165.

The liability of his foreign immovable estate to the

personal debts of the testator depends upon the *lex situs* alone, where no intention on the part of the testator to interfere with that law appears; and the law of his domicile cannot impose any burden upon such foreign immovable estate from which by its own law it is exempt.

The intention of the testator to devise or burden foreign p. 197. land by a will insufficient by the *lex situs* to do so, must, in order to impose a personal equity on the heir, be unequivocally expressed. General words, which might be satisfied by a different interpretation, will not be construed as evidence of such an intention.

The construction of wills, even when foreign land may p. 199. be indirectly affected by it, is for the law of the testator's domicile alone.

It is uncertain whether the legitimacy of a devisee of pp. 199-201. land is to be decided by the *lex situs*, or by the law of his domicile (as in the case of movables). The *lex domicilii* appears preferable on theoretical grounds.

Alienation of Immovable Property by Act of Law.

(v.) *Succession on Intestacy*.—The *lex situs* determines the heir; and the English law, speaking as the *lex situs*, p. 60. requires that he should be legitimate not only according to p. 202. its own rules, but by the law of his domicile also.

The burdens, liabilities, and claims, of immovable pro- p. 203. perty in the hands of the heir, in the absence of any equity arising from trust or contract, depend upon the *lex situs*.

But the conditions under which the heir of foreign land pp. 204-206. may share in the (movable) personalty of the intestate, depend upon the law of the intestate's domicile, and not upon the *lex situs* of the foreign land.

These rules, in cases of intestacy, are invariable, because p. 207. there can be no demonstration of the intention of the owner that the foreign land should either bear or be exonerated from any particular debts, as there may be when a testamentary disposition has been made.

pp. 208-211. (vi.) *Transfer on Bankruptcy*.—Under an English bankruptcy, the English bankruptcy law regards as passing to the trustee all the movable and immovable property of the bankrupt, wherever situate. And though the English bankruptcy law cannot pass the title (unless in a case where the *lex situs* gave it that effect), yet the Bankruptcy Act, 1883, appears to impose a personal duty on the bankrupt to execute a proper conveyance of foreign land to his trustee, which duty the English Court has power to enforce.

pp. 211, 212. In the case of a foreign bankruptcy, the English Courts will not regard the title to English land as passing to the trustee. The proper course is to apply to the foreign Court where the bankruptcy is pending, to direct the bankrupt to execute a conveyance according to English law.

p. 212. (vii.) *Transfer on Marriage*.—The rights of husband and wife in and to the English immovables of either are decided by English law, as the *lex situs*. *Semble*, the *lex situs* has an equal claim to prevail when the situation of the immovables is foreign, whatever the matrimonial domicile.

MOVABLE PERSONAL PROPERTY.

(i.) *Jurisdiction as to Personal Property*.

p. 223. Personal property, according to the English law, is not coincident with the class of *movables* contemplated by the law of nations, but includes certain *immovables* as well. The terms are consequently not equivalent.

p. 224. The maxim "*mobilia sequuntur personam*" applies to movables only; *i.e.*, to such personal property as falls under that class.

Such personal property as is immovable comes under the rules which relate to the jurisdiction over immovables generally.

p. 226. The local law has jurisdiction over movables, in the sense that it controls their possession, by whatever law the right to possession is determined.

Movables follow the person of their owner, and accordingly the law of his domicile governs all transmissions and distributions of movables which arise from an alteration of his personal *status*. p. 227.

But the effect and validity of a voluntary alienation of movables *inter vivos* is decided by the law of the place where the movables in fact are. p. 227.

English procedure does not allow service abroad of a writ merely on the ground that the subject-matter of the action is movable property within the jurisdiction. Except in Admiralty causes, the procedure in English courts is *in personam*, not *in rem*. p. 228.

But jurisdiction over movables within the jurisdiction is asserted in interpleader proceedings and other cases. p. 229.

(ii.) *Alienation of Movable Personal Property by Transfer inter vivos.*

When alienation of movable personal property is effected by transfer *inter vivos*, the law regards not so much the person and domicile of the owner, as the act or transfer by which the transfer is effected, and the situation, in fact, of the property transferred. pp. 236-247.

If the property transferred, and the parties to the transfer, are all within the same jurisdiction, the transfer, according to the law of that jurisdiction, will confer a good title valid everywhere, under the dominion of whatever law the property afterwards passes. p. 239.

When the parties to the transfer are in one jurisdiction, and the property dealt with is in another, the authorities are ambiguous; but *semble*, such a title will not be conferred if the property, at the moment of the transfer, be within another jurisdiction, by the law of which the attempted transfer is invalid or imperfect. pp. 246, 247.

And *semble* further if the transfer be valid, according to the law of the place where the property is in fact situate, the title conferred by it should be recognised as good everywhere, though imperfect by the law of the p. 241.

former owner's domicile, and though the property be afterwards brought within the dominion of that law.

p. 245. The creation of a lien upon movable personal property is similarly referred to the law of the place where the property was in fact situate at the time when the lien was created (*semble*).

pp. 247-250. Assignments of *choses in action* are governed by the *lex fori* as to remedy and procedure only. In cases of contract, the assignability and mode of assignment of the resulting *chose in action* seem to depend upon the original *lex contractus*. The question of notice to the debtor should be referred to the same law.

(iii.) *Succession to Movable Personal Property.*

(a) *Disposition of Movable Personal Property by Will.*

p. 252. The law of the testator's domicile at the time of his death has supreme authority in all matters connected with the capacity of the testator, the formalities, execution, interpretation, construction, and effect of a will of movable personal property.

p. 253. But the Court of the domicile of the testator has not supreme jurisdiction; so that where probate or administration is applied for in England, the English Court will make a general decree as to all the assets, wherever situate, on the principle that the executors or administrators are personally subject to its jurisdiction, and should be controlled by it.

p. 254. And when the right of succession is once ascertained, the rights resulting therefrom follow the person of the living successor, not of the dead testator.

The legitimacy and *status* of the successor similarly depend upon the law of his domicile, not upon the law of the domicile of the testator (pp. 262, 263).

p. 255. But, under Lord Kingsdown's Act, (24 & 25 Vict. c. 114), the wills of British subjects, whatever the domicile at the time of the death or of making, if made out of the United

Kingdom, are also valid if the forms required either by the law of the place of making, the law of the domicile at the time of making, or the law of the domicile of origin have been complied with ; and if made *within* the United Kingdom, are also valid if the forms required by the law of the place of making at the time of the making have been complied with. And by the same statute, no will, at least of a British subject, is revoked or becomes invalid by a change of domicile between the times of making and of the death.

But a power of appointment by will to movable personalty, given under English law, will be validly exercised by a will made in conformity with English law, though not with the law of the domicile of the deceased at the time of his death. Such a will will be admitted to probate accordingly ; though it seems that a will executed in compliance with the law of the domicile would be equally entitled to recognition. p. 259.

To entitle a will or other testamentary paper to English probate, it must dispose of some personal property situate in England, or else be incorporated by express or implied reference to another will or testamentary paper entitled to probate on its own account. pp. 264, 271.

In granting probate of the will of a testator domiciled in England, the English Court will, as a rule, follow the grant of the Court of the domicile, and grant probate or administration with the will annexed to the person who has been duly clothed by the Court of the domicile with the power and duty of administering the estate. pp. 265, 271, 273.

(b) *Succession to Movable Personal Property by Operation of Law.*

The law of the domicile of an intestate at the time of his death has supreme authority in all matters connected with the succession to, and distribution of, his personal estate. p. 266.

- p. 266, 267. But the Court of the domicile of the intestate has not supreme jurisdiction; so that, when administration is applied for in England, the English Court will make a general decree as to all the assets, wherever situate, on the principle that the administrators are personally subject to its jurisdiction.
- p. 254. When the right of succession is once ascertained, the rights resulting therefrom follow the person of the living successor, not of the dead testator.
- pp. 262-267. The legitimacy and *status* of the successor similarly depend upon the law of his domicile, not upon the law of the domicile of the intestate.

(c) *Right and Title of the Personal Representative.*

- p. 269. A grant of probate or letters of administration has no extra-territorial operation; and the personal representative under it acquires only a title to the personal chattels of the deceased within the jurisdiction of the Court which made the grant.
- pp. 269-271. To take possession of personalty in England, or sue for debts in an English court, a personal representative must therefore prove the will or take out letters of administration here as well as in the country of the domicile of the deceased. But this rule does not operate to prevent a personal representative clothed with authority by the English Court from suing in England in respect of movables actually situate abroad.
- p. 271. In granting probate or letters of administration, the English Court will generally follow the grant (if any) made by the competent Court of the domicile; but it appears doubtful if the mere fact that a person has obtained a grant as executor in the foreign Court will entitle him as of right to recognition of that character here. If the English Court does not consider him entitled as executor, it will, it seems, grant him letters of administration *cum testamento annexo*.
- p. 274. The personal representative, when once clothed with

authority by the English Court, is bound to administer the personal assets of the deceased in England.

The title of a personal representative to the personal p. 275. assets within the jurisdiction of the Court from which he derives his authority is not divested by the removal of the assets to another jurisdiction, unless they are removed under such circumstances as to remain still unappropriated assets, belonging to the general estate.

The effect of Scotch and Irish probates in England p. 277. is regulated by the statutory provisions of 21 & 22 Vict. c. 56, s. 12, and 20 & 21 Vict. c. 95, respectively. A foreign personal representative, who has not obtained authority from an English Court, nor received English p. 278. assets, cannot be sued in his representative character in England.

(d) *Probate and Administration Duty.*

When probate, or administration is granted by an p. 281. English Court, probate or administration duty is payable to the English Government on the value of the assets locally situate in England at the time of the death of the deceased, without reference to the law of his domicile, or the value of the assets situate there.

The local situation of transferable securities, which p. 282. pass from hand to hand, is that in which they are actually found.

The local situation of stocks and shares, transferable p. 281. only in one place, is the place where they are so transferable.

If the law of the country where assets are locally p. 283. situate requires double administration to be taken out in order to reduce them into possession, double duty is payable to the local Government. The law of the domicile of any or all of the parties is in such a case immaterial.

(e) *Succession and Legacy Duty.*

- p. 284. Succession and legacy duty is payable to the English Government in respect of the personal estate of every testator who dies domiciled in England; and is assessed not only on his personal estate in England, but upon all his personal movable estate, wherever situate in fact.
- p. 285. The duty does not attach upon annuities or legacies charged on foreign land, nor upon chattels real abroad.
- p. 286. Succession duty is payable upon chattels real situate in England, though the domicile of the testator be foreign. The personal character of such estate, and its liability to English succession duty, is determined by the English law as the *lex situs*, claiming in that right to govern immovables.
- p. 286. Succession duty is payable on personal estate appointed by the will of a testator domiciled abroad, under a power of appointment created by an English will or settlement. [And see the Succession Duty Act, 1853 (16 & 17 Vict. c. 51), s. 4.] So also, on successions to a settled fund vested in English trustees, consisting of English stocks and shares, though the instrument creating the settlement was the will of a testator domiciled abroad. But not, it seems, by the trustees who take immediately under such a will.
- p. 290. So, where the instrument creating the trusts of the settlement is a deed *inter vivos*. So, it seems in such a case to be sufficient that the funds should be vested in English trustees, though they have not actually been brought into England.
- p. 292. When succession duty is calculated according to the degree of relationship between the successor and the person from whom the succession is derived upon his death, the legitimacy of the successor is referred to the law of his domicile, not the domicile of the person from whom he derives succession.

(f) *Distribution of Movable Personal Estate by Executors and Administrators.*

The distribution of movable personal estate in the p. 293. hands of executors or administrators is regulated generally by the law of the domicil of the deceased.

But when the deceased was domiciled abroad, and p. 294. ancillary administration is taken out here, it is doubtful whether the priorities of creditors will not be regulated by the English law, as that from which the local administrator derives his authority. The English law will clearly prevail, as the *lex fori*, whenever a matter of procedure is involved. And by the English law, foreign p. 295. creditors in the same class are entitled to dividends *pari passu* with English creditors.

(iv.) *Assignment of Movable Personal Estate on Bankruptcy or Insolvency.*

To found the jurisdiction of the Bankruptcy Court, it is p. 303. not necessary that the alleged bankrupt should be domiciled in England. It is sufficient if the debt in respect of which bankruptcy proceedings are taken was contracted, and the act of bankruptcy took place, in England, the debtor himself being commorant or even transiently present there. p. 304. And it seems to be enough that the last two conditions should be complied with, though the debt was contracted abroad. But there must have been an act of bankruptcy in England, which is a personal act or default, and cannot be committed through an agent.

Assignment under an English bankruptcy includes all movable personal estate of the bankrupt, wherever situate, and whatever his domicil.

The title of the trustee is therefore complete to all pp 302-304. movable chattels of the bankrupt abroad, including *choses in action*. But if a foreign creditor of the bankrupt has obtained possession of any such movables by a competent judgment of a local Court, the title of the trustee will not

- prevail against him even in England; though there is some authority for contending that if a domiciled Englishman has used like diligence, an English Court will not allow him to hold the proceeds as against the trustee. Nothing less, however, than a *judgment* of a competent foreign Court will in any case defeat the trustee's title.
- p. 307. But a creditor who has received a dividend under a foreign bankruptcy will not be allowed to prove against the estate of the same debtor in England without bringing in what he has received.
- pp. 308, 309. Assignment under a foreign bankruptcy to foreign assignees extends to all the movable personal estate of the bankrupt in England, including *choses in action*. It is not, however, clear that if the bankrupt's domicile be English the title of his foreign assignees will prevail against that of his personal representative on his death.
- p. 310. The right of the foreign assignees to sue in England for a debt due to the bankrupt will be the same as that which would be conferred by an ordinary English assignment of the debt.
- p. 312. Priorities of creditors and all other questions of proof and distribution under a bankruptcy will be governed by the *lex fori*; which will deal with creditors who have submitted to the jurisdiction by coming before the Court without regard to their domicile.

(v.) *Assignment of Personal Property on Marriage.*

- p. 315. Where no marriage contract or settlement is entered into, the rights of the parties in and to each other's goods are absolutely regulated by the law of the domicile of the husband at the time the marriage takes place.
- pp. 316-319. When there is such a marriage contract or settlement, the law of the domicile is *prima facie* that which regulates its validity and interpretation; but if the place where the contract is executed is not that of the matrimonial domicile, the governing law appears to be that of the place which must be taken to have been in the contemplation of the

parties, either as their intended future residence, or as the *locus* of the subject-matter of the settlement.

Even where there is no dispute as to the proper governing law, in consequence of the marriage having been celebrated, and the contract entered into, in the country of the domicile, yet the rights created by it will not prevail against a subsequent bankruptcy of the husband in a competent foreign court, inasmuch as the distribution of assets in a *concurso* of creditors is governed by the *lex fori* alone.

PART III.—ACTS.

Jurisdiction as to Contracts.

- p. 323. The jurisdiction of English Courts to deal with contracts in which a foreign element existed was originally based on rules of practice alone; and the distinctions made by Roman law between the *forum actoris*, the *forum rei*, and the *forum rei sitæ*, *rei gestæ*, or *rei solvendæ* were ignored. The test of *venue*, provided that personal service could be effected on the defendant within the realm, was the only one applied in the Common Law Courts; whilst the Court of Chancery, which was unrestricted by the rules of *venue*,
- p. 325. had a discretionary power of ordering service without the realm in any suit. Actions for the possession of foreign immovables were excluded from all Courts; from the
- p. 334. Common Law Courts by the rules of *venue*, and from the Court of Chancery on principle.
- p. 325. The Common Law Procedure Act, 1852, gave a similar power of ordering foreign service to the Common Law Courts, where the cause of action arose within the jurisdiction, or in respect of a breach of a contract made within the jurisdiction—a provision which was, after a judicial conflict, construed to include the case of a contract made abroad, but broken within the realm.
- p. 326. The provisions of the Judicature Acts, 1873 and 1875, give a similar discretionary power of ordering foreign service—(a) where the whole subject-matter of the action is land situate within the jurisdiction; (b) where any contract affecting land situate within the jurisdiction is sought to be construed, rectified, set aside, or enforced; (c) where any relief is sought against any person domiciled or ordinarily resident within the jurisdiction; (d) where the

action is founded on any breach within the jurisdiction of any contract wherever made (with an exception in favour of persons domiciled or resident in Scotland or Ireland). The restrictions arising from the rules of *venue* are abolished altogether.

A foreign tribunal is regarded by the English tribunals p. 331. as having jurisdiction to entertain an action based on contract against any person who is domiciled (perhaps only *resident*) and present within its territorial limits.

Notwithstanding the abolition of *venue*, actions for the possession of or property in foreign immovables will not, it would seem, be now entertained, any more than they could have been in the Court of Chancery under the old p. 334. practice. The mere fact, however, that a contract relates to foreign immovables will not restrain an English Court from dealing with it; and the Court of Chancery will of course indirectly affect foreign immovables by acting in *personam*, as heretofore.

Capacity to Contract.

The capacity to enter into the contract of marriage is p. 338. governed by the *lex domicilii*.

The capacity to enter into a matrimonial contract as to p. 350. movable property is governed by the same law.

The language of the cases establishing the two former p. 338, *seq.* propositions is large enough to include cases of capacity to enter into a mercantile contract; but the older authorities are in favour of the *lex loci*, and the question has not arisen in recent years.

In the contract of marriage, the question, strictly speak- p. 349. ing, is generally, not one of the capacity or incapacity of the parties, but of the legality or illegality of the marriage.

The law of the matrimonial domicil is the proper law to pp. 345-347. decide whether the marriage can, by the use of any forms, ceremonies, or preliminaries, be effected.

The law of the place of celebration is the proper law to

decide what forms, ceremonies, or preliminaries shall be employed.

If the law of the matrimonial domicile is such that the marriage cannot be effected by obeying its directions, but can be effected by obtaining a dispensation from its prohibitions, the marriage cannot, in the absence of such dispensation, be legalised by the law of the place of celebration.

- P. 350. The law of any country may, and the English Royal Marriage Act does, not only prohibit certain persons from contracting marriage in England except on prescribed conditions, but refuse to recognise any marriage contracted by such persons elsewhere when those conditions have not been complied with.

Formalities of Contract.

- P. 352. The forms and ceremonies which the law of the place of celebration requires for the constitution of a contract are necessary and sufficient for that purpose.
- P. 354. But where the *lex fori* demands that a contract shall be evidenced in a particular manner, these rules of evidence must be complied with, though their indirect effect is to impose a formality of celebration not required by the *lex loci celebrationis* or *solutionis*, or to refuse as insufficient formalities by which the *lex loci* was satisfied.
- P. 355. Conversely, the *lex fori* may admit evidence which the *lex loci* would have rejected; but the contract, though proved as a fact, will in such cases be held void if that evidence shows that the formalities prescribed by the *lex loci* for the validity of the contract, as distinguished from the manner of proving it, were not fulfilled.
- P. 359. The general rule, that formalities are governed by the *lex loci* (*locus regit actum*) does not, however, apply to contracts which concern immovable property, as to which the *lex situs* prevails.
- pp. 360-363. The stamps which the *lex fori* requires on documents

executed out of its jurisdiction are rightly prescribed by it as coming under the head of evidence.

Where the *lex fori* is silent, the stamp requirements of the *lex loci actus* must be complied with; (except as to foreign bills of exchange, as to which see 45 & 46 Vict. c. 61, s. 72 (1)).

Legality of the Contract.

The legality of a contract depends generally upon the p. 364. law of the place of intended performance.

An act which is illegal by the law of the place where it p. 365. is intended to be done cannot be validly contracted for in any place.

But the legality of the making of the agreement—*i.e.*, p. 369. the giving a particular consideration for a particular promise—seems to depend upon the *lex loci actus*.

Essentials of the Contract.

Generally, the essentials of a contract are governed by p. 375. that law which the parties intended by their agreement to adopt.

This law, *prima facie*, is the law of the place where the contract was made (*lex loci celebrationis*); but may be any other which the parties have sufficiently indicated their intention of adopting.

(1) *The construction and interpretation of contracts* is pp. 378-387. *prima facie* a matter for the *lex loci celebrationis*, but the object and subject-matter of the contract, the domicile of the parties, and the place of intended performance, may each and all indicate that the parties intended to refer the interpretation of their language to a different law.

(2) *The nature and incidents of the obligation* are also pp. 387-392. *prima facie* governed by the *lex loci celebrationis*, as the law which the parties are presumed to have intended to apply to the unforeseen incidents of the *vinculum* or legal tie.

pp. 393-410. But in contracts of affreightment and bottomry bonds the parties are presumed to have contracted with reference to the law of the ship's flag, that flag being a notice to all the world of the extent of the master's authority to bind his owners. The validity, however, of a sale by the master of the ship or cargo, in a foreign port, depends upon the *lex loci actus*, which governs the transfer, without reference to the law of the flag.

p. 418. The nature and extent of an agent's authority depend *primâ facie* upon the law of the place where he is found acting as agent.

And where it is expressly or impliedly agreed that any future incidents of the contract shall be governed by the law of the place where they arise, that law will, of course, so far prevail.

pp. 427, 450. Thus all incidents of performance will be governed by the law of the place of performance.

pp. 430-442. The *form* of the drawing, acceptance, and indorsement of bills of exchange depends upon the law of the place where the bill is drawn, accepted, or indorsed.

But a bill issued abroad is not invalid by reason only that it is not stamped in accordance with the law of the place of issue.

And a bill issued abroad, which conforms to the requisites of English law, may be treated as valid for the purpose of enforcing payment, as between all parties who negotiate, hold, or become parties to it in the United Kingdom.

The duties of the holder as to presentment for payment or acceptance, and the necessity for a sufficiency of a protest or notice of dishonour, or otherwise, are determined by the law of the place where the act is done, or the bill is dishonoured.

The law of the place of payment determines the due date, and the amount is calculated on the rate of exchange at the place of payment.

p. 447. The nature and incidents of a contract entered into by an agent in a foreign place, and the extent of the agent's

authority, would also seem to depend, *prima facie*, upon the law of the place where the agent contracts.

But in contracts of affreightment and hypothecation entered into by a master of a ship, the contract between the owners and freighters is referred to the law of the ship's flag; and *quære*, whether this principle does not extend to all contracts entered into by the master on behalf of the owners?

(3) *Performance of the Contract*.—Performance or non- p. 450. performance of a contract, and the consequent dissolution of the obligation, is tested by the law of the place where the contract was intended to be performed.

Quære, whether the unforeseen incidents of the obligation, which arise in the course of performance, are governed by the *lex loci celebrationis* or *solutionis*? *Semble*, the former, at any rate if any external facts, such as the domicile of the parties, tend to indicate an intention to adopt that law.

The illegality, by the law of the place of performance p. 455. of the performance contracted for invalidates the contract *ab initio*.

(4) *Discharge of the Contract otherwise than by Perform-* p. 458. *ance*.—The discharge of a contract, when not the natural result of the agreement, nor the indirect consequence of the rules of the *lex fori* as to the time within which a remedy must be sought, may be effected by the law of the place where the contract was made.

A discharge by the laws or tribunals of a paramount p. 460. Legislature, such as that of the United Kingdom, will bind tribunals of the subordinate jurisdictions, wherever the contract was made, if the paramount Legislature intended it to have that effect.

But a discharge, to claim recognition in a foreign court, p. 464 must be an absolute discharge of the obligation, and not a mere refusal of a remedy.

A contract may also be discharged by a novation or a p. 466. release, forming a new agreement between the parties, and executed according to the requirements of the *lex loci actus*.

TORTS.

- p. 475. (i.) *Jurisdiction as to Torts*.—An English Court has jurisdiction to try actions based on torts to the person, or to movable personal property, wherever those torts were committed.
- p. 471. Torts to immovable property situate abroad were formerly excluded from English Courts by the technical rules of *venue*.
- Whether they are also excluded by any principle of international law, and whether, therefore, an English Court is still without jurisdiction to try actions based on such torts, has not been decided, and appears very doubtful.
- p. 475. The Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty Division of the High Court of Justice has special jurisdiction, formerly the jurisdiction of the Admiralty, in respect of torts committed on the high seas.
- p. 476. (ii.) *Measure of the Wrong done*.—When an action is brought in an English court on a tort committed abroad, the act complained of must be wrongful both by English law and by the law of the country where it was committed.
- (Query, whether it must not only be wrongful, but also actionable, by the latter law?)
- p. 477. Legislation in the country where the act was committed, purging the tort, though *ex post facto* and retrospective in its operation, will be a good answer to an action in an English court.
- p. 481. If the place where the act complained of was committed is not under the domain of any special municipal law, the *lex fori* will be applied to test the tortious nature of the act.
- The *lex fori* in English courts, with respect to wrongful collision on the high seas, is the general law maritime as administered in England.
- pp. 487, 491. But where both the parties to the collision are British subjects, the general law maritime is modified by the Merchant Shipping Acts.

(iii.) *Measure of the Remedy*.—The remedy in general p. 482. depends, like other questions of procedure, upon the *lex fori*, the question whether the act is one which is entitled to a remedy at all being decided by the law of the place where it was committed.

(Query, how far an act criminal but not actionable by the law of the place where it was committed is actionable in England?)

The provisions of the English Merchant Shipping Act p. 487. which limit the liability of the shipowners for damage done by the ship are not rules of remedy or procedure which apply universally in the right of the *lex fori*, but are applicable by express enactment to foreign ships, when their rights and liabilities with respect to collision on the high seas come in question in an English Court.

The provisions of the English Merchant Shipping Acts p. 492. which direct that redress shall not be given in cases of collision, where the rules of the same Acts as to navigation have not been complied with, are not rules of remedy or procedure, but tend to determine the tortious nature of the acts resulting in collision. They are not therefore applicable to collisions on the high seas, except between British vessels, or even to such collisions in British territorial waters.

PART IV.—PROCEDURE.

Procedure.

- p. 501. The remedy is to be enforced according to the mode of the *lex fori*, though the right of action be sometimes indirectly affected by the application of the rule. Thus,
- p. 501. (i.) (a) The *lex fori* controls the question of the name in which the action is to be brought, but not the title to a right of action, when that affects the ultimate direction in which its benefits are to flow. Title validly conferred creates a foundation for procedure.
- pp. 503, 506. (b) So liability is determined by the proper law which imposes it, but when a personal liability is once imposed, the mode in which it is enforced, as, for example, by joint or several procedure, depends upon the *lex fori*.
- p. 508. (ii.) The *lex fori* determines the time within which an action may be brought—that is, the time within which an obligation may be enforced depends upon the law of the tribunal which is asked to enforce it. But when the competent law has declared that an obligation, after a given time, shall be extinguished, and not merely rendered incapable of being enforced in a particular tribunal, the law of another tribunal cannot, by fixing a longer term of prescription, revive it. This qualification would seem to apply, whether the party against whom it is sought to revive the defunct obligation has resided during the whole term of prescription under the dominion of the *lex contractus* or *actus*, or not.
- pp. 513–522. (iii.) The *lex fori* determines the form and nature of the action by which a personal liability is sought to be enforced, and the process or execution which the tribunal uses to enforce it. But the *lex fori* can never convert into a per-

sonal liability that which is not so by the law which created the obligation.

(iv.) The *lex fori* determines the evidence by which an obligation must or may be proved. It cannot, however, create an obligation where none existed before, though it may refuse to recognise one that already exists.

(v.) All foreign facts, including the meaning of language and the existence of laws, are objective facts to be proved, of which the Court will not take judicial notice. Foreign laws, when referred to by expert witnesses, may be examined by the Court for itself, but only those parts or sections which are so referred to.

Foreign Judgments.

A foreign judgment *in personam*, though not a merger of the original cause of action, gives rise to a legal obligation to obey its decree, which may be enforced by action.

Foreign judgments may be impeached in an English court for a defect in the jurisdiction of the Court which pronounced them, or for the fraud of the litigant relying on them; but not for error of law or of fact (except an error in the law of the Court which pronounced it, admitted by the parties); nor on the merits.

The sufficiency of the notice given to the defendant by the foreign tribunal is included under the head of jurisdiction; and a defendant who voluntarily appears, although under protest, is bound by the judgment which follows.

If no fraud or defect in the jurisdiction is alleged, a foreign judgment *in personam*, final in the Court which pronounced it, is conclusive in every other Court between the same parties or privies, whether relied on by a plaintiff or defendant. But a foreign judgment *in personam* cannot be enforced here by proceedings *in rem*. And *quære* whether a foreign judgment is conclusive when obtained *pendente lite* in England.

Subject to the same qualifications, a foreign judgment *in rem* is conclusive, not only between the same parties or

- privies, but as against all the world, though not pleadable as an estoppel even between parties to the original action.
- p. 575. No presumption will be allowed as to the grounds on which it proceeded, but where those grounds are expressed it will be conclusive as to them, as well as with respect to the facts directly adjudicated upon, provided that they were necessary to the decree.
- p. 576. A foreign judgment on *status* stands in the same position as a foreign judgment *in rem*, the question of the jurisdiction of the Court which pronounced it being decided by the ordinary rules applicable to the *status* of persons.
- p. 579. The rule that a foreign judgment, to be relied on, must be conclusive, operates to exclude the plea of *lis alibi pendens* when the prior suit is pending in a foreign court; and has been held under the old practice to exclude the plea of *res judicata* when the prior suit was pending in the foreign court when the action in which it is pleaded commenced; but *quære* whether this would be so under the present practice. The fact, however, that an appeal is pending against the judgment relied on does not affect its validity in a foreign court.
- p. 580. English litigants may be restrained in a proper case from proceeding in a foreign tribunal; and will in general be so restrained when the debtor's estate is being generally administered in England. In other cases, in order to obtain an injunction against proceedings before a foreign tribunal, it must be shown that the multiplicity of actions is vexatious; *i.e.*, that the foreign action can bring the plaintiff no relief that he could not obtain in the English suit.
- p. 581.

INDEX.

- ABANDONMENT OF DOMICIL**, 25
divests domicil if acquired, *ib.*
implies *animus relinquendi*, 26
(See "DOMICIL.")
- ACCEPTOR OF BILL OF EXCHANGE.**
liability of, 435
agreement by, to accept, 443
(See "BILLS OF EXCHANGE.")
- ACQUISITION OF DOMICIL**, 24
(See "DOMICIL.")
- ACTION**, foreign, when restrained, 581, 582
- ACTS OF STATE**, found no civil liability, 140, 477
- ADJUSTMENT**, by foreign average-stater, 356, 382
- ADMINISTRATION**, 266-280, 293
foreign, when followed, 272
no extra-territorial effect, 269
(See "PROPERTY" (MOVABLE).)
- ADMINISTRATION DUTY**, 280
governed by local situation of assets, 281
- ADMINISTRATOR**,
right and title of, 269, 275
distribution by, 293
under foreign grant, 274, 279, 503
- ADMIRALTY**, jurisdiction as to torts, 475
over crimes, 496
- ADMISSIBILITY OF EVIDENCE**, 523
- AFFREIGHTMENT**, contracts of, governed by law of ship's flag,
393-405
- AGENCY**, incident of contract, 447

AGENT, in foreign country, 447

AGENT IN ENGLAND OF FOREIGN MERCHANT, does not pledge credit of his principal, 449

ALIENS, former disabilities of, 12
 powers and privileges of, by statute, 13
 powers of, with regard to wills, 14
 cannot own British ships, 14
 no right to jury, *de medietate linguæ*, 14
 (See "NATIONALITY," "NATURALISATION.")

ALLEGIANCE, 1-4
 transfer of, on cession of territory, 9
 distinguished from tie of domicile, 20
 (See "NATIONALITY.")

AMBASSADORS,
 evidence of, as to law, 532
 diplomatic immunity of, 142-150
 includes exemption from all process, 143
 extra-territoriality of, 143
 may waive immunity, 144
 as by voluntarily appearing to give evidence, 144
 or by suing in local courts, 145
 but not by trading, 152
 statutory privilege of, 146
 extends to servants of legation, 147, 150
 how far extends to goods, 150
 Summary, 156

AMBASSADORS' SERVANTS,
 immunity of, by statute, 147-150
 service of, must be *bond fide*, 148
 may waive immunity by trading, 146
 list of, registered with Secretary of State, 149
 liability of, when subjects of State, 153

ANIMUS MANENDI, 27

ANIMUS RELINQUENDI, or *non revertendi*, 26

ANNUITIES OF FOREIGN LAND, not liable to succession duty, 285

APPOINTMENTS, TESTAMENTARY,
 forms of, 259
 liability of, to Succession Duty, 287

APPROPRIATION OF ASSETS, 276

ARREST, of person, given by the *lex fori*, 517

- ASSETS**,
 distribution of, by *lex fori*, 293
 local situation of, 281
 unappropriated within the jurisdiction, 276
- ASSIGNABILITY OF CHOSE IN ACTION**, 247
- ASSIGNEES**, of bankrupt, title of, 308, 503
- ASSIGNMENT ON BANKRUPTCY**, 301-312
 (See "PROPERTY.")
- ASSIGNMENT ON MARRIAGE**, 315-320
 (See "PROPERTY.")
- ATTACHMENT**, foreign, of bankrupt's property, 305
- ATTAINDER**, no extra-territorial effect, 83
- AVERAGE**, foreign statement of, 382, 456
 general, 419
 York and Antwerp Rules of, 422
 adjustment of, 456
- BANKRUPTCY**, effect of, on immovables, 210, 211
 (See "PROPERTY" (IMMOVABLE).)
 effect of, on movables, 301
 (See "PROPERTY" (MOVABLE).)
 effect of, on contracts, 460, 463
 proof under, 307, 514
 assignment on, 301-312
 title of assignees, 306, 310, 503
- BANKRUPTCY**, foreign, effect of, 305, 309, 460
- BILLS OF EXCHANGE**,
 stamps on, 363, 364
 form of, 358, 436 *seq.*
 construction of, 467
 contract of drawer, 430, 432
 acceptor, 435
 indorser, 432
 indorsement of, 437-441
 presentment and dishonour of, 435
 duties of holder and notice of dishonour of, 435
 payment of, 431, 451
 interest on, 431
 assignability of, 436, 582
 proposed Code of Rules for, 444
- BILLS OF EXCHANGE ACT**, 1882, s. 72: 358, 436, 468
- BILLS OF LADING**, by what law governed, 393-405
- BONA NOTABILIA**, local probate duty attaches on, 281
- BOTTOMRY BONDS**, by what law governed, 405

BUSINESS OF TRADING COMPANY, principal seat of, 112-120
(See "CORPORATION.")

CAPACITY, 44-57

defined and explained, 44-47
how far dependent on the *lex domicilii*, 47-50, 338
to act or contract, how far dependent on *lex loci actus*, 47, 337
to marry, 46-48, 339-349
of a married woman to contract, 50
for purposes of succession, 51
of infants, 52
of lunatics, 55
Summary, 58

CARGO, delivery of, by *lex loci*, 455, 457

CARRIAGE,

by sea and land, contract for, 425-429, 452
performance of, 452

CARRIER, liability of, 345

CERTIFICATES OF NATURALIZATION, 16, 17

CHARTER-PARTY, governed by law of ship's flag, 393-405

CHATTELS (See "PROPERTY" (MOVABLE).)

CHATTELS REAL, not movable personalty, 180, 224
succession to, legitimacy required, 214-222

CHILDREN,

legitimacy of, 60-69
(See "LEGITIMACY.")
meaning of word, in will, 64, 263

CHOSES IN ACTION, assignment of, 247-250

COLLISIONS ON HIGH SEAS, 407

COLONIAL LAND, not to be affected by petition of right in England,
162

COMITY, international, what is, 544

COMPANIES ACT, 1862, how far applicable to foreign companies,
107-110

COMPANY, foreign, liability of individual members of, 505, 506

COMPANY, foreign insurance, deductions of premiums from income-
tax returns, 235
(See "CORPORATION.")

CONFIRMATION OF THE EXECUTOR, by Scotch law, effect of, 277

CONSTRUCTION of wills, 262
of contracts, 378-387

CONSULS, retain their domicile, 34
but, *semble*, subject to jurisdiction of local forum for divorce, 94

CONTRACTS, 322-470**Jurisdiction as to, 323**

common law rules, 324

effect of Common Law Procedure Act, 325

Chancery Rules, *ib.*

effect of Judicature Acts, 326

origin of, 324

venue, abolition of, 352

service out of the jurisdiction, 326-330

exception as to Scotland and Ireland, 327

mode of objecting to jurisdiction, 333, 334

Summary, 335

Law of the Contract, 336**Capacity to Contract, 337**effect of *lex loci*, *ib.*effect of *lex domicilii*, 338

capacity to contract marriage, 339-349

Royal Marriage Act, 350

Summary, 351

Formalities of Contract, 352governed by *lex loci*, *ib.*effect of *lex fori*, 354-358

contracts for transfer of immovables, 359

stamps, 360-364

Summary, 374

Legality of Contract, 364

legality of performance, 365

agreement, 369-373

Summary, 375

Essentials of Contract, 375**Construction and Interpretation, 378**in accordance with intention of parties, *ib.*, 382generally by *lex loci celebrationis*, 379**Nature and Incidents of Obligation, 387-450**

governed by law contemplated by parties, 389

in contracts of affreightment, by law of flag, 393-405

in bottomry bonds, 405

sales in foreign port, 411

average statements, 419

contracts for carriage, 425-429

Bills of Exchange, 430

indorsement of, 432, 437-441

assignability of, 436, 502

proposed code of rules for, 444

interest for breach, 431

agreement to accept, 443

liability of acceptor, 435

Bills of Exchange Act, 1882, s. 72: 358, 435, 468

as to form, 358, 436

CONTRACTS—continued.Essentials of Contract—*continued.*Nature and Incidents of Obligation—*continued.*

Bills of Exchange Act, 1882, s. 72, as to duties of holder, 435

agency, 447

English agent of foreign merchant, 449

Performance, 450

payment of bills, 451

contract of carriage, 452

delivery of cargo, 454

illegality of performance, 455

adjustment of average, 456

Discharge, 458

by *lex loci*, 459

bankruptcy discharge by paramount jurisdiction, 460

English bankruptcy, 460, 463

discharge of surety, 465

by novation, 466

Summary, essentials, 467

CORPORATIONS, FOREIGN, 100-121

artificial personalty of, 100

how far recognised, *ib.*

may sue as plaintiffs, 101

are liable to be sued as defendants, 103

service of writ upon, 104

when created by subordinate jurisdiction, 108

discovery by, when litigant, 121

domicil of, 112

by election, 120

where resident, 112, 114-120

double domicil of, for purposes of jurisdiction, 113

but not for general purposes, 118, 119

Scotch corporations, privileged as to service, 107

how far subject to Companies Acts, 107

winding-up of, 108

registration of, *ib.*

pending foreign liquidation, 109

actions by, when restrained, 110

how far subject to Revenue Acts, 111

when chargeable to income tax, *ib.*, 115

Summary, 154

COUNTER-CLAIM, right to, governed by *lex fori*, 515**CRIMES, jurisdiction as to, 496-499****CRIMINAL OFFENCE by *lex loci*, not necessarily actionable, 477****CURATORS, foreign, how far recognised in England, 52, 57****CURRENCY, rate of, in portions and legacies, 382**

- CURTESY**, estates by the, created by *lex situs*, 212
- CUSTOM**, local, incorporated into contract, 386
 of City of London as to *feme covert* trading, 504
 local, proved by parol evidence, 525
- DAMAGES**, measure of, by *lex fori*, 486
- DEFENDANT** must be justiciable, 330
 joinder of, governed by *lex fori*, 505
 but not liability of, 506
- DELIVERY OF CARGO**, by *lex loci*, 455, 457
- DENIZENS**, 17
- DENIZATION**, by patent, 17
- DISCHARGE**, of contract, 458
 of surety, 465
 by novation, 466
 (See "CONTRACT.")
- DISCOVERY**, by litigant corporations, 121
 by litigant States, 126, 140
- DISHONOUR OF BILL**, notice of, 435
 (See "BILLS OF EXCHANGE.")
- DISSOLUTION OF MARRIAGE**, 85-98
 (See "DIVORCE.")
- DISTRIBUTIONS**, Statute of, to what it applies, 64
- DISTRIBUTION OF ASSETS**,
 by executors and administrators, 293
 under bankruptcy, governed by *lex fori*, 312
- DIVORCE**, 85-98
 of English marriage by foreign court, not recognised, 85
 unless where the parties are domiciled within the jurisdiction of
 such court, 85, 86
 for cause insufficient by English law, 87
 by vows of chastity, 88
 jurisdiction of English Court to decree, 90
 requires English domicile, 90-93
 except in peculiar cases of *bond fide* residence, 94
 judgment of, on whom binding, 577
 Summary, 99
- DOCUMENTS**, foreign, how proved, 524
 (See "PROCEDURE.")
- DOMICIL**, 22-43
 defined, 22
 distinguished from nationality, 20
 is a question of fact, 23
 of origin, 23

DOMICIL—*continued.*

- of origin follows that of the father, 23
 - except in certain cases, 23
 - adheres until an independent domicil is acquired, 24
 - reverts *in transitu*, 25
- by acquisition, 24
 - manner of acquiring, by *factum* and *animus*, 24-27
 - indicia* of, 29-31, 34-36
 - presumption of law as to, 31
 - follows residence required by office, 33
 - requires voluntary residence, 30, 36
- mercantile, 40, 41
- of infant, 23
- of orphan, 24
- of married woman, 31, 32
- for testamentary purposes, 37
- election of, by French shareholder, 41, 120, 550
- of foreign corporation, 112-120
- statutory or municipal, 38, 39
- of consuls and ambassadors, 34
- effect on capacity, 47 *seq.*
 - marriage, 60 *seq.*
 - movable successions, 252, 266
 - (See "PROPERTY.")
 - marriage contracts, 315
 - contracts, 338
- Summary, 58

DOUBLE DOMICIL, impossibility of, 24, 113, 118

DOWRY, estates in, created by *lex situs*, 212

DRAWER, of Bill of Exchange, liability of, 430, 432
(See "BILLS OF EXCHANGE.")

ELECTION, foreign heir, when put to, 198, 205

EMINENT DOMAIN, meaning of, 158

ESSENTIALS, of contract, 375-470

(See "CONTRACT.")

of marriage, depend on *lex domicilii*, 70

(See "MARRIAGE.")

ESTOPPEL, by judgment, 564, 572

EVIDENCE, admissibility and sufficiency of, depend on *lex fori*, 353, 523

statutes to facilitate taking, 535

of foreign documents, 525

law, 527-533

statute for ascertaining, 539

EXECUTION, of process, generally for *lex fori*, 516
(See "PROCEDURE.")

EXECUTORS,
right and title of, 269, 275
distribution by, 293
(See "PROPERTY," MOVABLE, SUCCESSION TO.)

EXECUTOR DE SON TORT, 278

EXONERATION, of real estate situated abroad, 188, 204

EXPATRIATION, alleged right of, 5

EXPERT, to prove foreign law, who is sufficient, 532

EXTRA-TERRITORIALITY, 142

FLAG, law of the, 393-410

FOREIGN SUIT, when stayed, 581, 582

FORMALITIES,
of contract, 352
governed by *lex loci celebrationis*, *ib.*
(See "CONTRACTS.")

FORMALITIES OF MARRIAGE, governed by *lex loci celebrationis*, 70
(See "MARRIAGE.")

FRAUDS, STATUTE OF, matter of procedure for *lex fori*, 352, 523

FUNDS,
settled in England, liable to succession duty, 286
in stocks transferable abroad, not liable to probate duty, 281

GENERAL AVERAGE, by law of contract, 419, 456
York and Antwerp rules as to, 422

GRECIAN JURISPRUDENCE, no trace of private international law
in, xxv

GUARDIANS, foreign, how far recognised in England, 5

HERITABLE BONDS, SCOTCH,
are real estate, 187
descend to Scotch heir, 187
when defeated by collateral security, 188
exoneration of, 189, 204

HIGH SEAS, torts committed on, 481, 487
crimes committed on, 496-499

HOSTILE CHARACTER OF PRIVATE PROPERTY IN TIME OF WAR, 40, 41

HOTCHPOT, Scotch heir of English intestate not compelled to bring
land into, 204

HUBER, comments on the absence of private international law from the jurisprudence of Rome, xxv

HYPOTHECATION,
of ship or cargo, 405
by bottomry bond, 408

ILLEGALITY,
of contract, 369
of performance, 365, 455

IMMOVABLES (*See* "PROPERTY.")

INCAPACITY, 44-47
theories as to, *ib.*
distinguished from prohibition, 46
to act or contract, 47, 337
to marry, 46-48, 339-349

INCIDENTS OF CONTRACT, 387-450

INCOME TAX, foreign company when liable to, 111

INDEPENDENCE OF SOVEREIGN STATE, for the judicial cognizance of the Court, 138

INDIAN CORPORATION, within Companies Act, 108

INDORSEE OF BILL, title of, 437-441

INDORSEMENT OF BILL, what sufficient, 432, 437-441

INDORSER OF BILL, liability of, 432
(*See* "BILL OF EXCHANGE.")

INFANT,
domicil of, 23
national status of, 19
incapacity of, how far tested by the *lex loci actus*, 47
how far by *lex domicilii*, 47
guardianship of, 52
jurisdiction of *lex loci* over, 54

INSURANCE COMPANY, foreign, deduction of premiums from income-tax returns, 235

INTENTION, necessary to a change of domicil, 26
(*See* "ANIMUS RELINQUENDI."
"DOMICIL.")

of parties to contract, 375

INTEREST, rate of, determined by *lex contractus*, 370

INTERPLEADER, 229
foreign claimant in, how far subject to jurisdiction, 331

INTESTACY,
as to immovables, 202-208

INTESTACY—*continued*.

as to movables, 266-297

(See "PROPERTY.")

IRISH PROBATES, effect of, in England, 277**JUDGMENTS**,

foreign, how proved, 526

obtained *pendente lite*, 580*in personam*, 543

mode of enforcing, 543

no merger of original cause of action, 544

mode of pleading, 545

examinable for excess of jurisdiction, 546, 572

or want of notice to defendant, 560

or fraud, 552

but not for mistake of law, 553

or fact, 564, 566

when defendant bound by, 547

founded on local Statute of Limitations, no bar, 512

in rem, 572

conclusive against all the world, 573

as to matter decided and grounds of decision, 575

but examinable for excess of jurisdiction, 572

or fraud, 152, 576

on *status* of persons, 576

Summary, 582

JUDICATURE ACTS,effect of, on assignability of *choses in action*, 250

abolition of venue by, 332, 474

practice under, as to service out of jurisdiction, 177, 228, 326, 520

(See "SERVICE OF WRIT.")

JURISDICTION,

as to immovables, 158-177, 471

(See "PROPERTY" (IMMOVABLE).)

as to movables, 223

(See "PROPERTY" (MOVABLE).)

as to contracts, 322-470

as to torts, 471

(See "CONTRACTS," "TORTS.")

essential to validity of foreign judgment, 572

KING'S PEACE, offences committed beyond the, 499**LAW**, foreign, how proved, 532

(See "PROCEDURE.")

LEASEHOLDS, English, legitimacy of successor to, 214

LEGACIES (*See* "WILLS," "PROPERTY.")

LEGACY DUTY,

estimated according to the *lex domicilii* of the legatee, 66, 292
payable to government of domicil without regard to actual situation
of estate, 284

LEGALITY of contract, 364, 369

of performance, 365-368

LEGATEE, capacity of, depends on the *lex domicilii*, 51

LEGITIMACY, 60-69

for purpose of succession to land, by *lex situs* and *lex domicilii*, 60
of Scotch heirs, 61

for purposes of succession to movables, depends on the *lex domicilii* of the successor, 62

succession to chattels real, 214

estimating Legacy and Succession Duty, 66

under the Statute of Distributions, 64

must not involve recognition of incest, 67

statutory declaration of, 68

Summary, 69

LEGITIMATION

per subsequens matrimonium, 62

depends on the *lex domicilii* of the father at the time of birth, and
at the time of the marriage, 62

LEX CONTRACTUS, 336 *seq.*

celebrationis, 337, 352, 379

solutionis, 450, 459

(*See* "CONTRACTS.")

LEX DOMICILII,

how far it determines capacity or incapacity of the person, 47, 338

legitimacy of legatee, 51

governs essentials and legality of marriage, 70

no effect on transfer of movables, 241

governs movable successions, 252, 266

assignments of movables on marriage, 315

subject to intention and agreement of parties 316, 318

LEX FORI,

governs procedure, 500 *seq.*

priorities, 295, 513

evidence, 353, 523

prescriptions and limitations, 508

except where opposed by *lex situs* with respect to immovables, 183,
509

LEX LOCI ACTUS,

effect on capability, 47, 337

how far controlled by *lex domicilii*, 47, 338

LEX LOCI CELEBRATIONIS,

- effect on capacity, 47, 337
- governs forms and non-essentials of marriage, 70
- operation on marriage contracts, 316, 318, 388
 - contracts generally, 252, 379

LEX LOCI SOLUTIONIS, 458

(See "CONTRACTS.")

LEX SITUS,

- governs as to immovables, 179, 183, 186, 193, 196, 202, 212, 214
 - (See "PROPERTY" (IMMOVABLE).)
- effect of, on movables, 223, 236
 - transfer of movables, 236
 - (See "PROPERTY" (MOVABLE).)

LIABILITY, of defendant, not created by *lex fori*, 417, 429

LIEN, on movables, how created, 245

LIMITATION,

- Statutes of, affecting immovables, 183-186
- generally governed by *lex fori*, 508-513
- judgment founded on foreign statute of, no bar, 512

LIS ALIBI PENDENS,

- when a good plea, 579
- no bar when prior action in foreign Court, 580
- foreign judgment pronounced *pendente lite*, how far available, 580

LUNACY, foreign declaration of, 56

LUNATIC, jurisdiction over, 55

- foreign curator of, 57
- property of, 57

MARITIME LAW,

- general, 412
- its nature, 405, 407, 412

MARRIAGE,

- capacity for, 46, 48, 339-349
 - (See "CAPACITY.")
- dissolution of (See "DIVORCE.")
- essentials of, depend on *lex domicilii*, 70
- forms of, depend on the *lex loci celebrationis*, 70
- incestuous, not recognised, 78
- validity of, 70
- with deceased wife's sister, 79, 80
- of first-cousins, 74
- of Mormons, 78
- of Parsees, 74
- prohibition of, by *lex domicilii*, 71, 73
 - by law of forum dissolving former marriage, 84

MARRIAGE—*continued.*

- effect of, on immovables, 212
- movables, 315
- (See "PROPERTY.")
- contract, 316, 318, 388
- Summary, 84

MARRIAGE ACT, ROYAL, 83**MARRIED WOMAN,**

- her right to sue, 504
- her domicile, when distinct, 31
- her national status, 18
- her personal property, 315
- legacy to, paid to husband where no equity to settlement by *lex domicilii*, 504

MARSHALLING, doctrine of, applied to heirs of immovables only by *lex loci*, 164**MEASURE,**

- of tortious act, 476
- of remedy, 482
- of damages, 486

MERCANTILE DOMICIL, 40, 41**MERCHANT SHIPPING ACTS, limitation of liability by, 487, 492****MINORS,**

- contracts by, 47, 337
- marriage of, 46, 339

MISJOINDER, of party to action, 502, 503, 507**MISTAKE, of law or fact, no ground for impeaching foreign judgment, 553-566****MOVABLES (See "PROPERTY.")****MUNICIPAL LAW, particular application of, xxvii****NATIONALITY,**

- definition of, 1
- distinct from domicile, 20, 21
- how determined by the common law, 1
- how modified by statute, 2-21
- in cases of union under one Crown, 10
- of children, 18, 19
- of wives, 18, 19
- on cession or abandonment of territory, 9
- possibility of changing, 4, 5
- statutes regulating, 2, 3, 4-21
- Summary, 21

NATURALIZATION OF ALIENS,

- under the Naturalization Act, 1870 : 14-17

NATURALIZATION OF ALIENS—continued.

semble, does not give power of transmitting nationality, 17, 19
 in British possessions, 18
 privileges conferred by, 15
 certificates of, 16, 17
 (See NATIONALITY.)

NATURALIZATION ACT (33 & 34 Vict. c. 14), 6-21

NATURE OF IMMOVABLE PROPERTY, 179, 224
 (See "PROPERTY.")

NATURE OF MOVABLE PROPERTY, 180, 224
 (See "PROPERTY.")

NAVIGATION RULES OF MERCHANT SHIPPING ACTS, effect
 of, 487, 492

NEXT OF KIN, determined by *lex domicilii*, 64

NON-JOINDER OF PARTY TO ACTION, 502, 503, 507

NOTICE OF DISHONOUR, what sufficient, 435
 (See "BILLS OF EXCHANGE.")

NOTICE TO DEFENDANT, essential to validity of foreign judgment, 560

NOVATION, discharge of contract by, 466

PACKED PARCELS, contract by railway for carriage of, 366, 370, 456

PARTIES, to action, 501
 (See "PROCEDURE.")

PARTNERSHIP, foreign, not the same status as corporation, 103

PERFORMANCE,
 of contract, 450
 illegality of, 366, 455
 (See "CONTRACTS.")

PERILS OF THE SEA, by what law decided, 456

PERSONS (See "NATIONALITY," "DOMICIL," "CAPACITY,"
 "STATUS.")

PERSONAL EQUITY, enables Court to affect foreign land, 160-166

PERSONAL LAW, dependent on domicile, not on nationality, xxviii

PERSONAL PROPERTY (See "MOVABLES.")

PERSONAL STATUS (See "STATUS.")

PETITION OF RIGHT, not to affect colonial land, 168

PLAINTIFF, right of, to sue, 414

POLICY OF INSURANCE, how far incorporates foreign law, 390

POWERS OF APPOINTMENT BY WILL, how to be executed, 259

PRESCRIPTION,

as to immovables, 183-186

generally, 508-513

PRESENTMENT OF BILL OF EXCHANGE, sufficiency of, 435**PRIORITIES**, generally matter of procedure for the *lex fori*, 295, 513**PRIVILEGIA**, 82**PROBATE**, 264

no extra-territorial effect, 269

foreign, when followed, 265, 271

(See "PROPERTY" (MOVABLE).)

PROBATE AND ADMINISTRATION DUTY, 280

imposed according to locality, 280

(See "PROPERTY" (MOVABLE).)

PROCEDURE,generally governed by *lex fori*, 500

parties to the action, 501

title of plaintiff, 502

liability of defendant, 505

liability not created by *lex fori*, 506, 518

time within which action must be brought, 508

English Statutes of Limitations, 509

suit and process, 513

governed by *lex fori, ib.*

set-off, 515

execution, 516

service of writ out of the jurisdiction, 520

in cases affecting land, 177

movables, 228

contracts, 326

evidence, 523-539

requirements of Statute of Frauds, 523

proof of foreign facts, 524

foreign documents, 525

custom, *ib.*

judgments, 526

law, 527-533

Summary, 533

PROCESS, 516

(See "PROCEDURE.")

PROFITS OF FOREIGN COMPANY, when liable to income-tax.

111-115

PROHIBITION, distinguished from capacity, 46**PROMISSORY NOTE**, assignability of, 442

(See "BILLS OF EXCHANGE.")

PROPERTY, 158-321

(A.) IMMOVABLE,

Jurisdiction as to, 158-177

- belongs to *forum situs*, 159
- indirectly assumed by English Courts, 160
- where there is an equity to be enforced, *ib.*
- arising out of trust or contract, *ib.*
- not repugnant to *lex situs*, 167, 172
- and the defendant is justiciable, 166
- examples of equities enforced, 167
- actions in the *forum situs*, when restrained, 170
- jurisdiction with respect to torts to, 174
- how far affected by abolition of venue, 177
- service out of the jurisdiction of writ affecting, *ib.*
- Summary, 178

Nature of, 179

- depends on *lex situs*, *ib.*
- distinction between movables and personalty, 180-182

Prescription and limitation of, 183-186

- depend upon the *lex situs*, 183
- when governed by the *lex fori*, 184, 185

Liabilities of, 186-192

- governed by *lex situs*, 186
- even against the *lex domicilii* of a testator, 187
- subject to equities arising out of testator's intention, 189
- Summary of incidents relating to, 192

Transfer of, *inter vivos*, 193-196

- governed by *lex situs*, 193
- formalities of, 194
- restraints upon, 195

Succession to, by will, 196

- governed by *lex situs*, *ib.*
- subject to equities affecting devisee, 197
- arising out of testator's intention, *ib.*
- issue not directed to try validity of will of foreign lands, 198
- legitimacy of devisee, 199
- foreign lands not within 20 & 21 Vict. c. 77, *ib.*

Succession to *ab intestato*, 202

- requires legitimacy by *lex situs* and *lex domicilii*, 60
- 202
- governed generally by *lex situs*, 203
- liabilities depend on *lex situs*, 205
- right to exoneration, 204
- obligation of foreign heir to elect, 198, 205

Assignment of, on bankruptcy, 208

- effect of English Bankruptcy Acts, 208, 209
- obligation of bankrupt to assign foreign land, 210

PROPERTY—*continued*.(A.) IMMOVABLE—*continued*.

Assignment of, on marriage, 212

lex situs prevails against *lex domicilii*, *ib*.

Alienation of, by operation of law, summary, 213

(B.) MOVABLE,

Jurisdiction as to, 223

chattels, real and personal, *ib*.

movables and personalty distinguished, 180, 224

mobilia sequuntur personam, 224

qualification of maxim by locality in fact, 226

general transmission of movables, by *lex domicilii*, 227particular alienations *inter vivos*, by *lex loci*, *ib*.English practice, *ib*.

service out of the jurisdiction of writ affecting, 228

local jurisdiction over, instances of, 229

Admiralty procedure *in rem*, *ib*.distress, *ib*.interpleader, *ib*.

liability of, to income-tax, 231

arising from trade or business in England, 233

deduction of insurance premiums from income-tax,
235

Summary, 235

Transfer of, *inter vivos*, 236by *lex loci rei sitæ*, 236-239

effect of law requiring actual delivery, 237-239

regulation of, by *lex loci rei sitæ*, 239unsupported by *lex domicilii*, 241

creation of possessory lien, 245

assignment of *choses in action*, 247

Summary, 251

Succession to, 252-297

by will, 252

ab intestato, 266

right and title of personal representative, 269, 275

probate and administration duty, 280

succession and legacy duty, 267, 286

distribution by executors and administrators, 293

Summary, 296

Assignment on bankruptcy, 301

effect of English bankruptcy, 302

essentials of jurisdiction, 303

competing with foreign process, 305

effect of foreign bankruptcy, 305, 309

title of assignees, 306, 310

distribution of assets, 295, 312

PROPERTY—continued.**(B.) MOVABLE—continued.**Assignment on bankruptcy—*continued.*

Summary, 313

Assignment on marriage, 315

governed by *lex domicilii*, *ib.*subject to subsequent operation of *lex fori*, *ib.*, 316

agreement and intention of parties, 316, 318

Summary, 321

RAILWAY, foreign, law governing journey on, 425, 452**REGISTRATION OF CONTRACT**, effect of necessity for, by foreign law, 464**RELEASE**,

by executor or administrator, 278

executed according to *lex loci*, 466

of surety, 465

REMEDY,governed by *lex fori*, 500

(See "PROCEDURE.")

measure of, with respect to torts, 482

RENT-CHARGE, on foreign land, where recoverable, 168**RESIDENCE**,

to affect domicil, must be permanent, 23-27

indicia of, 29-36

involuntary, 30, 36

(See "DOMICIL.")

bona fide, when sufficient to found jurisdiction for divorce, 94**ROMAN EMPIRE**, not suited to development of international law, xxiii**SALE OF IMMOVABLES**, 193**SALE OF MOVABLES**, 236

(See "PROPERTY.")

SALE OF SHIP OR CARGO IN FOREIGN PORT, 236, 411**SALVAGE**, how adjusted, 384**SCOTCH PROBATES**, effect of, in England, 204**SERVICE OF WRIT**,

out of the jurisdiction, 520

in cases affecting land, 177

movables, 228

contracts, 326

on foreign corporation, 104

on head officer of company, 76

SET-OFF, question of procedure for *lex fori*, 515

SETTLEMENT,

of English property, governed by English law, 319

English, governed by English law, 87, 319

marriage, generally governed by law of matrimonial domicil, 315

SHIP, British, what is, 14

cannot be owned by alien, *ib.*

sale of, in foreign port, 236, 411

SHIPMASTER,

authority of, 417

contract by, 418

SHIPOWNER, liability of, for master's contracts, 417

SLAVES, contract for sale of, 372

SLAVE TRADE, not piracy by law of nations, 373

SMUGGLING, contract in aid of, 369

SOVEREIGNS, FOREIGN,

may sue in English Courts, 124

represent their States, 123

not usually given costs, 124

when ordered to give security for costs, 128

discovery by, 126, 140

not liable to be sued, 128

unless privilege waived, *ib.*

by submission to the jurisdiction, 129

or by trading as private person, 130, 131

or in a private capacity, *ib.*

or in respect of English land, 133

agent or trustee of, 134

public property of, not liable to local jurisdiction, 133, 136

independence and sovereignty of, is for the Court's judicial cognizance, 138

obligations of, when litigant, 140

Summary, 155

SOVEREIGN STATES.

(See "STATES.")

SOVEREIGNTY, ACTS OF, create no civil rights, 140, 477

STAMPS,

on contracts and other instruments, 360-364

on bills of exchange, 363, 364

STATES,

recognition of, 138

are bodies politic, 122, 124

and persons within Judicature Acts, 124

may sue in English Courts, 124

STATES—continued.

- may sue in English Courts, but not for international wrongs, *ib.*
- not usually entitled to costs, *ib.*
 - but compelled to give discovery, 126, 140
- not liable to be sued, 128
 - unless privilege waived by trading as private person, 130
 - or by acquisition of English land, 133
 - or by acquiescence in the jurisdiction, 129
- public property of, exempt from jurisdiction, 133
- agent or trustee of, 134
- Summary, 155
- (And *see* "SOVEREIGNS.")

STATUS,

- elements of, xxviii, xxix, 1, 22
- civil and political, 22
- distinguished, 20
- of foreign guardians and curators, 52, 57
- judgment on, effect of, 576

STATUTE OF DISTRIBUTIONS, legitimacy under, tested by *lex domicilii*, 62, 263

- to what it applies, 64

STATUTE OF FRAUDS, matter of procedure for the *lex fori*, 352, 523**STATUTORY DOMICIL, objections to, 38****SUCCESSION,**

- to immovables by will, 196
 - ab intestato*, 202
- to movables by will, 252
 - ab intestato*, 266
- duty, 267, 286
 - on foreign movables only, 285
 - not on proceeds of, or charges on foreign land, 286
 - rate of, depends on legitimacy by *lex domicilii*, 63, 292
 - imposed without reference to local situation of estate, 284
 - by the government of the domicil, 284
- (*See* "PROPERTY.")

SURETY, release of, 465**SYNDICS OF FOREIGN BANKRUPT, their right to sue, 308, 503****TESTATOR, his will governed by *lex domicilii*, 252 *seq.*****TITLE TO SUE,**

- not generally affected by *lex fori*, 502
- of administrator, 269, 275
- of assignee of *chose in action*, 247-250
- of syndics of foreign bankrupt, 306, 310, 503

TORTS, 471-494

- jurisdiction over, 471-475
 - to foreign land, *ib.*
- service out of the jurisdiction, 475
- measure of the wrong done, 476
 - tested by *lex fori* and *lex loci*, *ib.*
 - wrong criminal, but not actionable by *lex loci*, 477
- committed beyond any municipal jurisdiction, 481
- measure of the remedy, 482
 - by *lex fori*, *ib.*, 483
 - if actionable by *lex fori*, 483
- measure of damages, 486
- torts on high seas, *ib.*, 486
- under Merchant Shipping Acts, 487, 492
- Summary, 494

TRANSFER,

- of immovables, 193
- of movables, 235
 - (See "PROPERTY.")

TRANSIT,

- complete, necessary to a change of domicile, 24-27
- if incomplete, causes domicile of origin to revert, 25
 - (See "DOMICIL," "ABANDONMENT.")
- by sea and land, contract for, 425-429, 452

TRANSITORY ACTIONS, nature of, 324

TRANSLATION,

- of foreign documents, 524
- of wills, 273

TRESPASS,

- to foreign land, 471-475
- to person, *ib.*

TRUSTEES, must be within the control of the Court, 170

TRUSTS, ENGLISH, successions under, liable to duty, 286-288

TRUSTS,

- of foreign land, not enforceable, 170
- except where trustees within the control of the Court, *ib.*

TUTORS, foreign, how far recognised in England, 52, 57

VENUE,

- origin of, 324
- abolition of, 332, 474

WILLS, OF IMMOVABLES,

governed by *lex situs*, 196
subject to equities affecting devisee, 197
validity of, not directed to be tried, when lands without the jurisdiction, 198
(See "PROPERTY" (IMMOVABLE).)

WILLS, OF MOVABLES, 252

probate of, 264
forms and solemnities of, 257
interpretation of, 262
execution of, 252, 257
duty on, 280
validity of, 254-261
(See "PROPERTY" (MOVABLE).)

YORK AND ANTWERP RULES OF GENERAL AVERAGE, 422

how far adopted by British underwriters, 424


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